

THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION  
QUARTERLY

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# THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY

Volume X

OCTOBER, 1935

Number 2

## ASSOCIATION NOTES AND EDITORIAL COMMENTS

THIS issue of the QUARTERLY is devoted largely to reports made by various committees of the Association and to studies and discussions pertaining to the work of the secondary schools. The lists of the Association's committees for the year 1935-36 are also included.

The issue, however, has other features of note. Among these are the two much discussed addresses of Governor McNutt and City Manager Dysktra. Both addresses make the same challenging appeal when read privately that they did when delivered by their writers before the Association. No one can afford not to peruse them.

### SOME CORRECTIONS

In the QUARTERLY for July on page 2 the number of secondary schools accredited in 1935 was given as 2580. The number should have been 2634. Of these, 76 were new schools and 2558 were schools that had been approved previously. The detailed figures as given on page 94 of the July issue of the QUARTERLY are correct.

In the list of accredited schools published in the July QUARTERLY the Lincoln High School of Kansas City, Missouri, was listed as having first been approved in 1926. This is incorrect. The school was first accredited in 1917 and

has been continuously on the approved list since that date.

The official connection of the new Secretary of the Commission on Secondary Schools, G. W. Rosenlof, is with the University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebraska, and not with the State Department at Topeka.

### JOSEPH V. DENNEY

Joseph Villiers Denney passed away at his home in Columbus, Ohio, on June 19, 1935. He was 73 years old.

During the early days of the Association Dr. Denney played a very active part in its organization and its work. For four years (1902-6) he was the general secretary, and in 1933 was made an honorary member of the Society.

Graduating at the University of Michigan in 1885, Dr. Denney was first an instructor in rhetoric in that institution and then, in 1891, was called to the Ohio State University as associate professor of rhetoric. The remainder of his active life—44 years—was spent in connection with that institution, he being Dean of the College of Arts and Sciences there from 1901 to 1921, and Chairman of the Department of Rhetoric and English from 1904 to 1931. As author, critic, and educator, he was a national figure. In particular, he was known to a genera-

tion or more of high school boys and girls and to a like number of college students as the joint author of Scott and Denney's textbooks in rhetoric and literature. His field of specialization in literature was the study of Shakespeare, he being one of the founders of the Shakespearian Society of America.

Although Dr. Denney has not recently played an active part in the North Central Association, he was well known to many of its older members, and his influence in the upbuilding of standards in respect to English and the teaching of English will be sadly missed.

#### HIGHER DEGREES

Bulletin 1934, No. 20, of the United States Office of Education deals with graduate study in this country. It is a most interesting and valuable publication covering 234 pages. Members of the North Central Association surely will wish to read it. It not only treats of the development of graduate study in America, but it also presents detailed analyses respecting the causes of such development and the current requirements relating thereto. The following are a few of the statistics taken from the study.

ing the superintendency at Tulsa in order to accept a similar position in Long Beach, California, Dr. French has taken himself completely out of North Central Association territory. In consequence of this fact, he automatically retires from the Chairmanship of the Association's Commission on Curricula of Secondary Schools and Institutions of Higher Education—a position to which he was elected only last April. His withdrawal from the council and administrative chambers of the Association is regrettable indeed. Nevertheless, the congratulations of all his friends go out to him because of the new honor. The promotion is well deserved.

Because of the resignation of Dr. French, Dr. L. W. Webb, the Vice-Chairman, automatically becomes the presiding officer of the Commission for the remainder of the year.

#### ELEVEN-YEAR VS. TWELVE-YEAR SCHOOL SYSTEMS

As is well known, the school systems south of the Mason-Dixon Line are, for the most part, organized on an eleven year basis, or a 7-4 plan. For years, too, many individuals have contended that

Year	Graduate Students Enrolled	Master's Degrees Granted	Doctor's Degrees Granted	Total Higher Degrees Granted
1871-72	198	..	..	..
1880-81	460	..	..	..
1890	2382	70	164	234
1900	5831	1744	342	2086
1910	9370	2440	409	2849
1920	15612	3873	532	4405
1930	47255	14495	2024	16519

#### WILL FRENCH RESIGNS

Oftentimes the scenes shift rapidly on the North Central Association stage and Dr. Will French of Tulsa, Oklahoma, is one of the persons most recently to be responsible for such changes. By resign-

a system of this kind yields as many and as great advantages to pupils as does a twelve-year system. Because of these claims a recent study made by Dr. A. S. Edwards of the University of Georgia is of much interest. The study is re-



ported in the *High School Quarterly* for July, 1935. The study deals with 650 freshmen enrolled in that University in the fall of 1934. Dr. Edwards finds "a marked superiority for the twelve-year school graduate." "On each of five tests of the psychological examination," says he, "we find, in general, definite and uniform superiority of the 12-year students. The superiority, with only two exceptions, varies from 2.2 per cent to 101.8 per cent." Dr. Edwards further says: "Achievement as shown by the registrar's records shows superiority for the 12-year students on practically all grades recorded."

Commenting editorially on the study, this issue of the *High School Quarterly* fittingly says:

"Ever since the organization of the Commission on Secondary Schools the merits of the eleven-year school system have formed a favorite topic for discussion. The studies of college freshmen grades for the first quarter or semester have shown a slight superiority of students from twelve-year systems over those from eleven-year systems. The ad-

vocates of the eleven-year systems have contended that the slight superiority does not justify the additional year's work. Dr. A. S. Edwards of the University of Georgia has been making a study of the performance of eleven-year school graduates as compared with those from twelve-year schools. He finds a marked superiority for the twelve-year school graduate. A complete report of his study is given in this issue.

"Dr. Edwards' study is a worthwhile contribution, but the question as to which system renders the better and more effective educational service cannot be settled unless the holding power of the two systems is compared. The editor has long believed that the 8-4, 6-6, or 6-3-3 plan of organization with a flexible system of promotion can give the benefits of secondary school education to a larger percentage of the boys and girls of secondary school age in the community which it serves than any combination of the eleven-year system. It is to be hoped that some one in the near future make a scientific study of the holding power of the two systems."

*North central*

*of colleges and secondary schools*

✓ COMMITTEES OF THE ASSOCIATION  
✓ 1935-1936 ✓

A. COMMITTEES APPOINTED BY THE PRESIDENT

1. COMMITTEE ON PRESIDENT STRADLEY'S ADDRESS

L. A. PITTINGER, Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Indiana  
GEORGE F. KAY, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa  
G. W. ROSENLOF, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebraska  
JAMES M. WOOD, Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri  
JAMES T. GAFFNEY, Principal, Roosevelt High School, Chicago, Illinois

2. REPRESENTATIVES TO THE AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION

GEORGE WORKS, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois  
B. L. STRADLEY, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio  
HARL R. DOUGLASS, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota

3. REPRESENTATIVES TO THE ANNUAL MEETINGS OF OTHER ASSOCIATIONS

a. New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, President H. M. WRISTON of Lawrence College, Appleton, Wisconsin  
b. Northwest Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Dr. FREEMAN DAUGHTERS, University of Montana, Missoula, Montana

4. REPRESENTATIVES TO SPECIAL INAUGURATION CEREMONIES

a. Of President GAMMAGE of Arizona State Teachers College, Mr. E. W. MONTGOMERY, Superintendent of the University High School, Phoenix, Arizona

B. COMMITTEES OF THE COMMISSION ON INSTITUTIONS  
OF HIGHER EDUCATION

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IRVING MAURER, Beloit College, Beloit, Wisconsin  
CHAS. E. FRILEY, Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, Ames, Iowa  
J. D. HILL, State Teachers College, Superior, Wisconsin

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DONALD J. COWLING, Carleton College, Northfield, Minnesota  
H. M. GAGE, Coe College, Cedar Rapids, Iowa (*ex officio*)  
CHARLES H. JUDD, The University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois  
O. R. LATHAM, Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa  
W. P. MORGAN, Western Illinois State Teachers College, Macomb, Illinois  
P. C. PACKER, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa  
ELLIS B. STOUFFER, University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kansas  
E. H. WILKINS, Oberlin College, Oberlin, Ohio  
JAMES M. WOOD, Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri  
GEORGE F. ZOOK, President, American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D.C.

a) *Executive Committee*

L. D. COFFMAN, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota  
W. W. CHARTERS, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio  
H. M. GAGE, Coe College, Cedar Rapids, Iowa



CHARLES H. JUDD, The University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois

GEORGE F. ZOOK, President, American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D.C.

*b) Research Staff*

GEORGE F. ZOOK, President, American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.

M. E. HAGGERTY, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota

FLOYD W. REEVES,<sup>1</sup> Director of Personnel, Tennessee Valley Authority, Nashville, Tennessee.

3. COMMITTEE ON THE ACCREDITING OF JUNIOR COLLEGES THAT ARE COMBINATIONS OF HIGH SCHOOL AND COLLEGE WORK (A joint Committee with the Commission on Secondary Schools)

*a) Representatives of the Higher Commission*

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GEORGE BUCK, Shortridge High School, Indianapolis, Indiana

WM. F. CUNNINGHAM, C.S.C., University of Notre Dame, Notre Dame, Indiana

*b) Representatives of the Secondary Commission*

JOHN RUF, University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri

WILLARD M. VAN SLYCK, Principal, High School, Topeka, Kansas

Rev. J. H. OSTDIK, Omaha, Nebraska

4. COMMITTEE ON BETHANY COLLEGE, BETHANY, WEST VIRGINIA, EXPERIMENT

EARL HUDELSON, West Virginia University, Morgantown, West Virginia

M. E. McCARTY, Fairmont State Teachers College, Fairmont, West Virginia

H. G. WHEAT, West Virginia University, Morgantown, West Virginia

5. COMMITTEE ON THE CHICAGO JUNIOR COLLEGES EXPERIMENT

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ERNEST O. MELBY, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois

6. COMMITTEE ON THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO EXPERIMENT

(Joint Committee with the Commission on Secondary Schools)

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(Joint Committee with the Commission on Secondary Schools)

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F. P. O'BRIEN, University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kansas

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9. COMMITTEE ON IOWA STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE EXPERIMENT

V. A. C. HENMON, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin

10. COMMITTEE ON KANSAS CITY, MISSOURI, EXPERIMENT

CHARLES H. JUDD, The University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois

L. V. KOOS, The University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois

THOMAS E. BENNER, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois

<sup>1</sup> Since June, 1933, the portion of the study conducted by Dr. Reeves has been carried on by Dr. John Dale Russell of The University of Chicago under plans originally drawn up by Dr. Reeves.

## II. COMMITTEE ON THE LITTLE ROCK JUNIOR COLLEGE EXPERIMENT

(Joint Committee with the Commission on Secondary Schools)

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ELMER COOK, Fort Smith Junior High School, Fort Smith, Arkansas

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(Joint Committee with the Commission on Secondary Schools)

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H. G. LULL, Kansas State Teachers College of Emporia, Emporia, Kansas

H. E. CHANDLER, University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kansas

## 13. REPRESENTATIVES OF THE COMMISSION ON INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION

APPOINTED TO COMMITTEES OF THE COMMISSION ON CURRICULA OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS AND INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION

a) *Committee on Subject-Matter Preparation of Secondary School Teachers*

OLIVER O. YOUNG, Superintendent of Schools, Galesburg, Illinois

b) *Committee on Studies in Certain Curricula Fields—Mathematics* (University of Nebraska)

J. G. MASTERS, Central High School, Omaha, Nebraska

## 14. BOARD OF REVIEW

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GEORGE BUCK, Shortridge High School, Indianapolis, Indiana

WM. F. CUNNINGHAM, C.S.C., University of Notre Dame, Notre Dame, Indiana

W. P. MORGAN, Western Illinois State Teachers College, Macomb, Illinois

HENRY M. WRISTON, Lawrence College, Appleton, Wisconsin

## C. COMMITTEES OF THE COMMISSION ON SECONDARY SCHOOLS

### I. STANDING COMMITTEES

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2. *Committee on Standards*: L. N. McWHORTER, Chairman, Minnesota (1937); G. W. ROSENLOF, Nebraska (1938); H. G. HOTZ, Arkansas (1936); A. W. CLEVINGER, Illinois (1938); C. E. PENCE, Illinois (1938); H. E. FLYNN, Minnesota (1936); J. T. GILES, Wisconsin (1937)

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4. *Committee on Library*: B. LAMAR JOHNSON, Missouri, Chairman; DOUGLASS WAPLES, Illinois; G. H. REAVIS, Ohio; ROSS N. YOUNG, Minnesota

5. *Special Committee on Study of Standards*: GEORGE W. CARROTHERS, Chairman, Michigan; CARL C. F. FRANZEN, Indiana; J. T. GILES, Wisconsin; M. R. OWENS, Arkansas; A. A. REED, Nebraska; E. E. MORLEY, Cleveland Heights, Ohio; RAYMOND OSBORNE, Francis W. Parker School, Chicago

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(Members representing the Commission on Secondary Schools)

1. *Committee on College Entrance Blanks*: CARL G. F. FRANZEN, Chairman, Indiana; G. J. BALZER, Wisconsin

2. *Committees on Educational Experiments*:

a. Tulsa, Oklahoma—H. E. CHANDLER, University of Kansas

b. University of Chicago—A. B. MACQUARRIE, Washburn High School, Minneapolis

c. College High School, Colorado State Teachers College, Greeley—C. R. MAXWELL, University of Wyoming; H. H. MILLS, University of Colorado

d. Little Rock Junior College—ELMER COOK, Fort Smith Junior College, Arkansas

e. Phoenix Union High School, Arizona, Experiment in English—O. K. GARRETSON, University of Arizona



3. *Committee on Special vs. General Training in Subject Fields for High School Teachers*: M. H. WILLING, University of Wisconsin
4. *Joint Committee* (with Commission on Higher Institutions) *to Study Accrediting of 6-4-4 Schools*: JOHN RUFI, Missouri; WILLARD N. VANSLYCK, Kansas; Rev. J. H. OSTDIEK, Nebraska

#### D. COMMITTEES OF THE COMMISSION ON CURRICULA OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS AND INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION

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 G. W. WILLETT, La Grange, Illinois  
 H. H. RYAN, Madison, Wisconsin  
 F. E. HENZLIK, University of Nebraska  
 J. E. FOSTER, Ames, Iowa

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 J. A. CLEMENT, University of Illinois  
 B. J. RIVETT, Northwestern High School, Detroit

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 J. E. STONECIPHER, Roosevelt High School, Des Moines, Iowa  
 R. B. PATIN, Shaker Heights High School, Shaker Heights, Ohio  
 WILLIAM AIKIN, John Burroughs High School, Clayton, Missouri  
 RAYMOND W. OSBORNE, Francis Parker High School, Chicago, Illinois

##### 4. COMMITTEE ON PATTERNS OF ACADEMIC TRAINING FOR HIGH SCHOOL TEACHING

###### —JOINT COMMITTEE

F. E. HENZLIK, University of Nebraska, *Chairman*  
 HARL R. DOUGLASS, University of Minnesota  
 THOMAS E. BENNER, University of Illinois  
 DEWITT MORGAN, Arsenal Technical High School, Indianapolis, Indiana  
 H. H. HAGEN, Crane High School, Chicago  
 O. O. YOUNG, Galesburg, Illinois (Representing Commission on Institutions of Higher Education)  
 M. H. WILLING, University of Wisconsin (Representing Commission on Secondary Education)

##### 5. COMMITTEE ON FUNCTIONAL UNITS

L. W. WEBB, Northwestern University  
 RUDOLPH D. LINDQUIST, Ohio State University  
 C. L. CUSHMAN, Denver Public Schools  
 JOHN E. FOSTER, Iowa State College  
 H. H. RYAN, University of Wisconsin High School  
 JOHN E. STOUT, Northwestern University

✓ Chicago, April 11, 1935 ✓

North central association  
of colleges and secondary  
schools - Commission on  
secondary schools

## THE PRINCIPALS' CONFERENCE<sup>1</sup>.

✓ The Conference of High School Principals with the Commission on Secondary Schools, held at the Auditorium Hotel, Chicago, Illinois, Thursday evening, April 11, 1935, convened at seven thirty-five o'clock, Colonel F. L. Hunt, Culver Military Academy, presiding. The discussion centered around the following topics:

1. The attitude of the Association on permitting high school seniors to take work in certain college classes where junior college work is offered in the same school.

2. Policy of the Association with reference to lay commissions making a survey of the educational programs of the states and bringing in suggestions for improvement in organization and financial support? Are such commissions desirable?

3. Has the North Central any policy as to permitting a band director, music teacher or other special teacher to receive fees for individual lessons?

4. Attitude of the Association toward approving teachers with three or more years experience in accredited schools of other regional associations even though they may not meet some of our technical requirements.

5. What is the attitude of the Association toward a policy requiring reports from all schools at a longer interval than each year.

6. Is it time for the Association to take cognizance of guidance organization as a necessary part of a school set-up?

7. Attitude of the Association toward the acceptance by an accredited high

school, for graduation, of credits earned in C.C.C. Camps.

8. Attitude of the Association toward the acceptance by an accredited high school of credits earned through correspondence. If correspondence work is acceptable for graduation from an accredited high school, from what institutions offering correspondence work shall such credits be accepted?

9. Policy of the Association with respect to the continued accrediting of high schools which violate different regulations and standards for two or more consecutive years.

10. Attitude of the Association toward teaching such laboratory subjects as physics, chemistry, botany, zoology, and biology on the demonstration plan.

11. Attitude of the Association toward accrediting schools in which the time requirement as prescribed in the definition of a unit of credit is not fully met. (This refers to the practice of certain high schools of allowing full credit for subjects usually regarded as being of the full laboratory type, such as industrial arts and drawing, and where the time devoted to the subject is only five 60-minute periods per week.)

12. Policy of the Association toward the accrediting of the high school which offers two or more types of diplomas for graduation. For example, one diploma which is acceptable for entrance to college and another diploma which is not acceptable for college entrance.

13. Attitude of the Association toward the accrediting of a high school whose board of education follows the practice of selecting teachers without the advice and recommendation of the administrative head of the school.

<sup>1</sup> A slightly edited stenotyped report of the meeting held Thursday evening, April 11, 1935.—THE EDITOR.



14. What shall be regarded as desirable working relationships between a board of education and the principal or superintendent directly in charge of a high school?

15. Attitude of the Association toward the continued accrediting of a high school in which the program of music is allowed to interfere with other school subjects to such an extent that pupils are allowed to miss various classes in order to take music.

#### THE DISCUSSION

*Chairman Hunt:* There has come to occur in English speech a saying based on the Old Testament story of Elijah and Elisha with reference to Elijah's mantle falling on Elisha. The only trouble with that saying is it isn't true to its source, because Elijah's mantle didn't fall on Elisha at all; it fell to the ground and Elisha picked it up. I have always thought that was a very significant point in the story, that the power, the authority and the wisdom that had belonged to Elijah went to Elisha because Elisha was willing to assume the responsibilities. I am glad to present the man who has picked up the mantle of Dr. Elliff as Chairman of the Commission on Standards, Mr. McWhorter.—[Mr. L. N. McWhorter, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Minneapolis, Minnesota, assumed the chair.]

*Chairman McWhorter:* Colonel Hunt and, I am glad to say, Ladies and Gentlemen: I am glad to take up this work this evening of opening up the discussion on these problems of the secondary schools. I am glad to see as many high school principals here as there are this evening, as Colonel Hunt has already remarked, and just at this time I see for the first time a new significance in the head table. I have been on either side of the head table on several occasions, but it has never appealed to me in exactly

the same light as it has tonight. The thing that I am thinking of tonight, when I think of this speakers' table is the old-time shooting gallery that we used to have in the small town. While I don't wish to paint any bull's-eyes on the fronts of the gentlemen that are up here, I am quite sure that the presence of the Committee on Standards of the Commission on Secondary Schools and some members of the General Committee for the Cooperative Study of High School Standards offer a remarkable opportunity, offer a target, if you will, for whatever suggestions and questions you may have to ask.

There comes to me this very brief little educational story. It was the first day that Mary went to school, and when she went home her mother said, "Well, Mary, did they teach you anything today?"

She replied, "Not much. I have got to go back tomorrow."

I am quite sure that, if you ask questions tonight and if some satisfactory answers are given to them, you will all come back next year with some more questions, and that this thing which we call secondary education will have, every year, new problems, new issues, new points of view to express, and that we will be going to school tomorrow and the next day and every day that we have any connection at all with this field of public education.

As I look over this group of questions that is proposed for this program tonight, two very striking things appeal to me. In the first place, they are obviously the things which have annoyed and irritated you in the course of your year's work as administrators of secondary schools. They are problems for which you need some help. They are problems which in some way affect your relationship to this organization of colleges and secondary schools. Second, they are questions for

which you find no answer, problems for which you find no solution in the published reports of the Commission on Secondary Schools. That is to say, it is a matter of inference, it is a matter of drawing your conclusions out of what material there may be here, if you are to find some satisfactory answer to those questions, and, hence, you have come to us tonight with an honest, frank question to ask, "What are you going to do about this particular problem or this particular issue?"

I am hoping that the course the discussion will take tonight will be something like this. I wish I might hope that everyone who has asked any one of these fifteen questions might be here tonight to present to this group not only his question but the circumstances which have caused this question to come into his mind, and then that there might be the freest discussion, the freest offering of opinion, the freest expression of judgment regarding the solution of this particular problem as it has appealed to you and as your experience has taught you to face it. And I am hoping, too, that in answering these questions you will be actuated by what the answer you give will do for the boys and girls in your school, what the answer you give will imply so far as the educational progress of your school is concerned, and that you will not answer these questions in terms of any sacred numbers or sacred rules or sacred traditions that may have been in your mind as the years have gone by, that you will not answer them in terms of "What is going to happen to me if I solve this problem this way in my relations to the Secondary Commission in this association of colleges and secondary schools?" Those are not the kinds of answers that will do us much good in solving these problems of the secondary school.

So, the first question tonight brings

out the thought that is through all of them, the matter of the attitude of the Association. I think we may omit that point of view and say "What ought to be done in a case like this?" and then advise and help the Commission and the Association to plan its procedures in accordance with the best judgment of the group of people who are represented here tonight.

I don't know just what the specific problem is that has given rise to this first question. I wonder if the person who proposed it, or the school system that proposed it, or some representative of that system, is here tonight. They ask, "What is the attitude of the Association on permitting high school seniors to take work in certain college classes where junior college work is offered in the same school?" What is the problem, may I ask you?

*Mr. F. G. Stevenson* (LaSalle-Peru Township High School, LaSalle, Ill.): I am inclined to believe that that question may have arisen in our school where we operate a two-year junior college at the end of a four-year unit township high school.

The question is, in the case of a class in physics, we will say, or in the case of a class in American history, where you have outstanding seniors and a class at the college level where those seniors will fit, whether the work wouldn't be more desirable for the students themselves to be classified with the college class than to be classified with a high school class which might have to operate below the intellectual capacity of the students. You can't duplicate all of these classes.

*Chairman McWhorter*: Does someone else have a similar problem?

*Mr. Dorcas* (University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa): We met that problem in Iowa in one form, and we solved it in this way: In a certain academy which was connected with a certain two-year



junior college, a lad, by virtue of his superior scholarship, had got, by the end of his third year in the academy, fourteen units. What was to be done with him? There he was, face to face with a perfectly good junior college but not quite ready for admission to college. That college solved the question by allowing him to carry two subjects in the college and two subjects in the high school so that by the end of his senior year, from the high school point of view, he had sixteen units and also something like twelve semester hours of college credit.

This boy applied for admission to one of the three state institutions in Iowa, and this is the way we solved that problem. We gave him his sixteen units and his twelve hours of college credit because we thought that that college had solved that question in the right way.

*Colonel Hitch* (Kemper Military Academy, Boonville, Mo.): We have a four-year high school and a two-year junior college. We didn't ask this question but we have been faced with it frequently, and we have done exactly as Mr. Dorcas has indicated, in most cases.

If the student is a very weak one, we just have him continue with the full high school course, but if he is a competent student and has come up with thirteen or fourteen units of high school work, we don't see any good reason for having him spend a whole year doing more high school work. We don't see any reason for making a strong line of demarcation, an impassable barrier between fifteen units of high school work and what comes next. If he can straddle that line, all right. If he were a senior in high school in some subjects and almost a senior in others, we would let him take senior work. We draw the line when he is one year more advanced. When he goes on to college, he gets some advanced standing. He is irregular, perhaps, but

that is his hard luck. He can work regularly in various ways. But we don't hold him back just because at one particular place in the course he happens to be a unit behind the regular line-up.

I don't think that has been altogether approved by the North Central Association but I am under the impression that the tendency now is to approve that kind of a decision.

*Professor H. R. Douglass* (University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.): At the University High School at the University of Minnesota they have conducted certain classes at the college level for their more advanced and abler high school seniors, and they have given to those high school seniors examinations that are given to the freshmen classes in the University of Minnesota and have found that those seniors have been able to average as well on the examination, a rather select group, to be sure, as have the freshmen in the regular college classes at the University.

*Dr. George E. Carrothers* (University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich.): I think the question that is asked here is not nearly as difficult to answer educationally as the other one, what is the attitude of the Association toward the school that permits the pupil who has failed in one or two subjects in the first year, maybe one in the second and yet is called a sophomore, and one in the third and still called a junior, and he comes to the senior year with ten or eleven credits, and because they don't want to embarrass him they let him take five or six subjects in the senior year and then graduate him?

*Chairman McWhorter*: I am wondering if, in the minds of some of you, the issue may have arisen regarding the application of credits when the pupil is not through with his senior high school work, when there is a combination school of that kind.

*Mr. B. C. B. Tighe* (Fargo, N.D.): It seems to me the whole problem, so far as that first question is concerned, is the problem of the level of instruction. I can see, as has been brought out in the experiment at the University of Minnesota, that, with certain select seniors there would be no problem involved. We all realize that frequently a sophomore in high school can do as well in a senior subject as a senior. You can jump one year or two years if you want to make the proper selection and get the results. It may be a sad commentary upon our stereotyped form of classification, but nevertheless it is true. I think, however, that there is just this one possible danger, and that is that if this thing became common there might be just a slight tendency to reduce the level of instruction to a type of senior pupils who would not have the sufficient I.Q. to cope with the work as it should be given in the freshman year of college. It seems to me that is the only danger and that, perhaps, is rather more theoretical than actual.

*Chairman McWhorter*: May I ask Mr. Hotz to explain any particular standard or regulation or policy that would have a bearing upon this problem that has been raised tonight?

*Dr. H. G. Hotz* (University of Arkansas, Fayetteville, Arkansas): This is a college problem; it is hardly a secondary school problem. I should agree one hundred per cent with the last speaker. In our college work and in our high school work we plan to give the work on successively higher levels at each year. If we get a number of people that come from these lower levels to the higher levels, it will have a tendency of reducing the standard of work. I also agree with the statement that was made a while ago that, in exceptional cases, by all means, I don't think you will incur the enmity of standardizing agencies if

you have a good reason, but I think we are apt to view with askance a college or high school that has a good deal of mixing up, freshmen with juniors and sophomores with seniors, and so on. If you have a case that can be demonstrated to be a successful case, I see no objection whatsoever.

*Chairman McWhorter*: The second question has been presented by some school or organization, and I should be particularly interested in having the school which asked this question present its problem, if it is possible to do so. "The policy of the Association, again, with reference to lay commissions making a survey of the educational programs of the states and bringing in suggestions for improvement in organization and financial support? Are such commissions desirable?" Is there somebody who would like to open the discussion upon this question? (No discussion)

The third question reads as follows: "Has the North Central any policy as to permitting a band director, music teacher or other special teacher to receive fees for individual lessons?"

*Mr. E. H. Hanson* (Rock Island High School, Rock Island, Ill.): I don't know whether anyone else submitted that question or not but I know I did. I don't recall that I submitted it in exactly that form. It is not stated as clearly as it might be. Perhaps it was my fault that it was printed that way. The way I meant to have it stated, however, is something such as this: Is it defensible to permit a band director or other special teacher to give for pay private lessons to his public school pupils? That is, if he is a director of a band of an institution and he finds, in order to develop that band to its highest point of efficiency, he should give private lessons to certain members of that band, and he charges regular private teacher's wages for doing that, in addition to what he gets from the



school system. I know that is a rather common practice. Music has been recently introduced, demonstration music, of a rather high type, and I am strongly for it.

We have in our own institution a very fine musical program, and we would not do anything in the world to truncate that program or hamper its development.

I feel rather definitely that the policy of permitting band directors to coach their own pupils for pay is not a defensible policy. In the first place, it isn't democratic. The youngsters who enter the high school apparently are all there with an equality of opportunity, not identity but equality of opportunity. As a band director looks over his group he finds there are certain youngsters in that group who have the ability to advance further, but, because their parents can't pay for private lessons, he chooses someone else who can pay. That isn't right. He isn't doing well by the students nor is he doing well by his band. If football coaches used the same policy, we would have a rather miserable looking team. If they looked over the list of candidates and determined those who were star or backfield players or ends only because their parents had money to pay for private coaching lessons, the team would suffer.

Besides that, I do believe there is a rather definite element or item in the ethics of the N.E.A. that does prohibit all other teachers, regular teachers, from coaching their own students for pay. I rather feel that the same thing should apply in special work.

I know that the Association has no ruling upon it. Perhaps it wouldn't be advisable to have a ruling upon it, but, none the less, I do know it is a rather common practice, and I was wondering what the general opinion of the gentlemen would be in permitting that kind of a thing to go on.

*Chairman McWhorter:* I am glad the question has been presented in just the form you presented it. I know it is an experience with which many high school administrators have to deal, and they are concerned about the ethics of the thing. The very fact that they cringe at it indicates what their instincts are regarding the application of this.

*Mr. Hanson:* I might say this, we have adopted a definite policy in that regard, and we do not permit it. In order to work out a policy, we had a considerable amount of grief for a while. There was quite a bit of agitation in the community. We stuck to our guns. It is going through but we are rather hoping the idea might carry further.

*Chairman McWhorter:* Are there any other schools which have had this problem and have been obliged to meet it in some definite way?

*Mr. E. A. Spaulding* (Emerson High School, Gary, Ind.): We have had that problem in our school. We have a band and an orchestra both, of nearly 600 boys and girls taking instrumental music. I find that those teachers get all the help they can from private music teachers, sending as many students as they can to private music teachers, but they also give private lessons themselves.

In two or three cases I have had some objection to it. For instance, one parent came to me making the point that the band director had given a try-out for places in the band concert, and that when a certain boy won who was not taking private lessons from this particular director, the director insisted on a second test, when his boy did win. My own judgment is that that was far-fetched. I don't think the band director did that, but I don't think that anything you can do in the school will prevent a parent from feeling that way so long as the director is giving private lessons.

*Mr. Giles* (Wisconsin): I know of a

case in Wisconsin. It seems to be the policy that pupils will not be permitted to belong to the musical organization unless they are taking private lessons, no matter what their ability is.

*Mr. J. C. Deaton* (Jefferson City High School, Jefferson City, Mo.): I might cite a case in the Jefferson City High School. We have one bandmaster now but before we had two. Each gave private lessons, and they lasted about a year apiece. The bandmaster we have now is hired on the basis that he is to give instruction to all students, not only in the high school but he must go down into the grade school. When he leaves the high school, he goes to each grade school once a week. He is going to be hired for twelve months of the year instead of nine. He will not be giving private lessons for pay but he will be doing it on school board money. We feel that we have solved our problem in that way.

*Chairman McWhorter*: Let me ask a very frank question of some of you. Have organizations of music teachers, not teachers in the schools, ever said anything about this as well as parents? ("Yes!") That is the other side of the issue and is the problem which we have faced in Minneapolis for a number of years. Is there any other discussion of this problem of music teaching of private classes by regularly employed teachers?

*Mr. J. F. Wellemeyer* (Wyandotte High School, Kansas City, Kansas): I think one question should be answered here, the imputation or the implication that only those get into the bands and orchestras that are taking private lessons. In these times we are trying our best to maintain good bands and orchestras.

We checked up on our band of eighty pieces the other day and found that six were taking lessons. I think that question should be answered. I think the

music teachers are doing mighty well these days in coping with that problem. Sometimes they give a lot of lessons and never get a cent for it, and they are not all their own pupils either. But the idea of indicating that only those taking private lessons get into the Big Ten organization is, so far as my knowledge of the thing is concerned, way off the beat.

*Chairman McWhorter*: Is there any other discussion of this problem?

*Mr. Roan* (Appleton, Wis.): We are in a college town. We hire a band man and an orchestra man in conjunction with the local conservatory of music. We have from 250 to 300 children taking violin work, string work. Our string man, I think, has twenty-five private students, but he also is connected with the conservatory.

We are about to face the problem of the private teachers of the city being up in arms because these people are giving music lessons, but just as this gentleman said, the music people do give very much of their time to the students in the schools, and they get no pay outside of what they get from the board of education for that work. If a band or an orchestra is to be successful, I presume it is comparable to a football or a basketball team: you can't have a forward in a basketball team coached by one coach and the other forward coached by another coach, and one of the guards coached by another one, and so forth, and expect the main coach to pull them all together and break down the styles of the other coaches and have a team, but he would have to do that if he is going to have a team.

With the orchestra and with the band, the directors face just that thing. I know we are going to face the problem of how to hold the violin; I don't know; but there is some discussion about it. I know our orchestra man thinks that one way is the right way, and a certain private



teacher thinks another way is the right way. Well, if we think that in football and basketball there has to be one coach for the team, and there has to be one main coach for the orchestra, if the orchestra man corrects the position, the private teacher thinks he is criticizing her. So there is the other side of the question. I think we have to consider that, too.

*Mr. Hanson:* We agree there is a considerable amount of private work desirable. Our contention is that this private work should be given without pay, as they have done over in Jefferson City.

When the youngsters come before the orchestra man or band man, he should not check through and find out, perhaps, which are able to pay for private lessons and develop those to key positions on his band or in his orchestra. He ought to find out which of the students have the potential ability and coach them just as the football man coaches them. The football man doesn't check his squad to find out who can pay for private coaching. He coaches the best candidates available. It is part of the job to develop a good orchestra or band, even though it involves a lot of work.

*Mr. Roan:* I think most of the band and orchestra men do that.

*Chairman McWhorter:* "What is the attitude of the Association toward approving teachers with three or more years experience in accredited schools of other regional associations even though they may not meet some of our technical requirements?"

I am going to ask Mr. Hotz, again, to state the particular part of our standards or regulations which has a distinct bearing upon this particular question.

*Mr. Hotz:* This Association has a reciprocity provision only within the North Central territory. We do not exercise reciprocity so far as preparation of teachers is concerned with other regional

accrediting agencies on this basis. However, it may be that we shall go over to the basis of making some recognition there. That is, all our regulations and standards are worded in the phraseology of "within North Central Association territory" and does not go outside.

*Chairman McWhorter:* It seemed to me there was a somewhat specific answer to this question in our present practice and in our present statement of regulations, but I think we are glad to throw out to you the question as it has come to you in a local problem in your school, if you will care to discuss it further. We should be glad to have some experiences that indicate that perhaps our regulation doesn't meet your problem. Is there someone who wishes to discuss this fourth question?

*Father Ball* (St. Rita High School, Chicago, Ill.): Most of our men are trained at St. Vincent College in Pennsylvania and are sent out here to teach. In fact, they are sent from there to all sections of the country. The requirements naturally are different, especially with regard to courses in education. I was just wondering whether or not in a specific case like this the question would not stand for an exception.

*Mr. Hotz:* Mr. Chairman, if our plans carry, we shall try to have this approved, that, in exceptional cases such as you have mentioned, exceptional cases that involve Standard 7 (b), upon the recommendation of state committees the Association will approve such deviations. We have not had that in the past but we are hoping to have that flexibility introduced so that there may be some leeway in that direction.

*Chairman McWhorter:* Is there any other discussion? "5. What is the attitude of the Association toward a policy requiring reports from all schools at a longer interval than each year?" I think we can answer that question, also, rather

definitely. What do you think about it?

*Colonel Hunt:* The people have to make them out.

*Chairman McWhorter:* What do you think about changing the interval between the issuance of reports to biennial reports or even six months' reports? (No discussion) "6. Is it time for the Association to take cognizance of guidance organization as a necessary part of a school set-up?" I like the form of the question. How many have in your school systems, in your high schools, some definite type of guidance program? (Majority) I think that pretty nearly answers the question.

*Dr. Carrothers:* The Standard Study Committee is definitely taking that into account in the work we are doing at this time. It must be taken into account.

*Chairman McWhorter:* There are other implications in that question which I think are quite significant and important. What is the type not only of guidance but of person that makes that guidance effective? "7. What is the attitude of the Association toward the acceptance by an accredited high school, for graduation, of credits earned in C.C.C. Camps?" Mr. Douglass, have you any statement to make regarding that question?

*Professor H. R. Douglass* (University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.): I wonder if the Chair is laboring under the delusion that I raised this question. This is so sudden. I think that the Association or any accrediting association or any group of schools will necessarily have to move in a rather conservative way towards accepting credits from any type of organization that isn't better formalized than the C.C.C. Camps. My impression of the work done in the C.C.C. Camps, from the observations I have made, would lead me to be somewhat conservative in the attitude of accepting the word "certified." I should

say that that isn't based upon any systematic observation but that the concern seems to be more with the diversion of young people from the cities and occupying them with some sort of busy work that will preserve their morale and keep them from organizing into troublesome groups rather than in the direction of definite, systematic and thorough school work. So my own judgement would be that I am from Missouri and I would have to be shown, first, that the work done in the C.C.C. Camp is equivalent to that done in our high schools.

*Mr. E. A. Spaulding* (Emerson High School, Gary, Ind.): I believe we have answered that in Indiana by its being within the power of the high school principal to give credit of that sort whenever that credit will be justified by an examination given by a licensed teacher.

*Mr. J. A. Larsen* (Little Rock Senior High School, Little Rock, Arkansas): I have had a number of letters written to me by the educational directors of C.C.C. Camps in our own state. I made this statement to them. I have had them come in, and, wherever we have outlines in printed form, we have given them to these directors to take back with them, and they only affect our own high school; they have not been interested in any others. Probably other high school principals have been written to as well. We tell them that we are perfectly willing to give them credit wherever they follow the outline or course of study we use in our high school. We give them the outline. In many cases they are in printed form, so they can follow them. We send them the explanations, and our own teachers do the grading of those papers. Under those conditions we will give them credit; otherwise we say we will not.

*Mr. R. W. Kraushaar* (South Dakota): We happen to have nineteen C.C.C. Camps in our beautiful Black Hills. We have had no small problem



with reference to the educational work done in those camps. We have taken, at the outset, the attitude that the best procedure for them is correspondence work. So, touching on the next question, almost ninety-five per cent of the correspondence work in our area is done through the extension service of the University of Nebraska. We found that to be the best solution.

*Chairman McWhorter:* Are there any further questions on this matter?

*Mr. Russell A. Beam* (Civilian Conservation Corps, Chicago, Ill.): For the benefit of Mr. Douglass, I happen to be assistant to the Corps Area Commander of the Civilian Conservation Corps with headquarters here in Chicago. When I looked at the program this morning, I saw immediately that I was on the spot. The motto of the organization, however, is "We can take it."

May I say, Mr. Douglass, in a recent study made in our own Corps Area for Mr. Marsh, our national director—this study was reported at the N.E.A. in the discussion group there. I sent out a questionnaire to 187 camps in this Corps Area covering the three states of Michigan, Wisconsin and Illinois.

Those questionnaires were answered by 180 of the 187 camps in complete form, and I would like to read to you an analysis, brief, of course, of the results of that questionnaire as they affect this matter of the granting of academic credit.

"The provisions for the granting of academic credit for the work done in the camps vary from state to state. In Wisconsin and Michigan the state department of education has not only empowered the local high school principals, upon application to that department, to grant academic credit under certain conditions but has also provided some inspection of camp programs for the purpose of effecting such arrangements and approving course content.

"In such instances the criteria prevailing are, the qualifications of the instructor, the quality of the work being carried on and the successful passing of an examination by the enrollee. This examination is set by the principal of the high school granting the academic credit.

"In Illinois the state department of education has officially supplied the Corps Area office with an elaborate set of conditions under which accreditation for camp instruction will be given. However, in at least one instance in that state the principal of the high school formerly attended by the enrollee was empowered to judge the quality and quantity of the work done, granting credit in the event the enrollee then successfully passed an examination set by the principal."

I think that gives you some light on the problem. May I say, also, Mr. Douglass, that, according to the handbook of the organization, it is very clearly stated that the educational program of the Civilian Conservation Corps is distinctly adult education for leisure-time activity, that it is not designed to be academic training, and I think, as such, you will recognize that it takes on a different character than what is carried on in formal classroom.

In a recent conference of our men in lower Michigan, we faced this question of the quality of the work done and the number of people participating. Some of our men were very much disturbed. They thought they should have 90 or 100 per cent of their boys engaged in the educational program in leisure hours on a voluntary basis.

Our Corps Area reports for the past few months indicate that the rise in the percentage of participation has been, roughly, from 40 per cent in October of last year to 56 per cent last month.

That compares quite favorably, I

think, with the figures reported by Dr. Koos in the National Survey of Secondary Education which indicated, roughly, 55 per cent of those of high school age were attending high schools in the United States, this under a large, compulsory program, with compulsory attendance at schools to age fourteen, sixteen and, in some cases, eighteen in some of the states of the Union.

As to the quality of the work, that is a different problem. It is a different type of education than most secondary school people are concerned with.

The camps of the Civilian Conservation Corps offer a program for youth who are not capable or who cannot for other reasons attend the colleges of our country, who might find here some way of bridging those years between high school graduation and possible employment.

We will admit that the facilities are meager in the camps. The educational program came along after food, shelter and clothing had been cared for and the primary and elementary problem of social organization had been provided. The educational program now faces the prospect of being given, very probably not earlier than July first, a definite place in the camp at which these classes may be held. Heretofore they have been held wherever they could meet. Usually, and I will use another good C.C.C. word, the educational advisers had to chisel out some place, if needed. The equipment is meager. There is a way, I think, of handling the educational program of the Civilian Conservation Corps, a way which I think will be approved by the President of the United States.

But to get back to my point: The educational adviser has had to depend upon the voluntary cooperation of the military staff, the technical staff, enrollees who were capable of carrying on the instruction, F.E.R.A. teachers, and

public-spirited citizens, and high school principals who would offer their services. It seems to me that the time has come when this splendid voluntary service must be reenforced.

In this Corps Area there is an average of ten and one-half people per camp offering instruction. There are, out of 30,000 boys in this Corps Area, some 20,000 enrolled in camps with an average attendance each month of 15,000.

The point I should like to make is this: I believe there is a way of meeting the challenge to youth by asking that the educational program of the Civilian Conservation Corps be put on an even more professional level than it has been, that, in addition to the educational adviser in the camp, there may be provided not only one assistant, as he now has, chosen from among the enrollees, but that there be provided two assistants, and that the age, that is eighteen to twenty-five, restriction be removed for that person, that the restriction on allotting \$25 of his \$30 basic pay, which he gets in addition to shelter and clothing, be removed. The re-enrollment restriction, which is fifteen months, recently, due to a fortunate meeting I had with a man in Mr. Beckner's office, has been removed.

This would be the idea: that we might take recent A.B. or B.S. graduates, or perhaps those of even more training, into the camps as assistants to the educational advisers on the leader's rating of \$45 a month plus food, shelter and clothing, and that we have, in addition to the trained educational adviser, two trained assistants, one of whom, I might say, could help with the classes, the more academic work, the library, perhaps, which is the center of the camp program, and, second, someone who might be trained in the industrial arts and perhaps physical education.

Please don't be too critical of our Ci-



vilian Conservation Corps educational program. I noticed a unanimity of opinion here that you thought it was rather superficial; perhaps it is. Remember, it has been working under handicaps. It has been working, largely, without recognition. I dare say—well, I won't ask you gentlemen to show your hands and embarrass yourselves, but how many of you men have been in the C.C.C. Camps? Quite a few, more than I expected. So you know what I am talking about when I tell you that the facilities are meager and the thing can be improved in many aspects. I think I have said enough.

*Chairman McWhorter:* I want to thank the gentleman for having presented this matter upon the plane which he has presented it. I am sure it was illuminating and informative.

*Mr. Moss (Milwaukee, Wis.):* I just want to suggest what we are doing. It might be of some help. We have a number of C.C.C. Camps within the city limits of Milwaukee. We are cooperating in this way: Our entire evening school is open to the C.C.C. Camps. They use their trucks and each evening transport their students to our school where they can take either high school work for credit or non-credit courses.

*Chairman McWhorter:* "What is the attitude of the Association toward the acceptance by an accredited high school of credits earned through correspondence? If correspondence work is acceptable for graduation from an accredited high school, from what institutions offering correspondence work, shall such credits be accepted?"

Is there some school which has this particular problem to solve at this time? (None)

"What is the policy of the Association with respect to the continued accrediting of high schools which violate different regulations and standards for two or more consecutive years?"

If you say "attitude" rather than "policy" there is no difficulty about answering that question, but as far as the written policy is concerned, there may be some doubt. What is your feeling in the matter? I think you feel just about the way we do about it.

*Mr. H. T. Steeper (North High School, Des Moines, Iowa):* This gets a little bit close to me in one particular spot. We have had certain legislative, mandatory regulations in our state, put in by the Democratic administration, as it happened to be, two years ago. It ran out this year. I don't know what will happen to it. I think it is before the legislature again. I remember a year ago I had to lose some twenty-six teachers under the situation and still carry the same load.

The point is this: I was advised a year ago, and I don't know whether I will be advised again this year or not. Frankly, I doubt whether the Association ought to advise a high school which is doing its best and can't do anything else. I personally have all the sympathy in the world with the North Central. I have worked with it for a good many years, and it has helped me in a good many spots. I have more respect for it, perhaps, than some boards of education and some superintendents do, and I have tried to hold in between the line somewhat. But I am wondering whether or not in these times, still of depression, it ought to be particularly necessary for a high school, for instance, that has been on the Association's books for years and meeting the standards, and so forth, to be advised about its teaching load, because a high school principal is certainly going to do his darnedest, if you will pardon the French, to keep that load down as low as he can and keep as many teachers on the job as he can. I don't know; maybe it is helpful. But I rather have the feeling that we ought

to continue, at least for a time, a little more open policy, perhaps, in regard to class loads and class sizes. So far as I know, nobody has proved that case anyway, although, personally, I would rather have smaller classes. In Des Moines if I get a class under forty, I think I am lucky. I see classes along the lake shore, of twelve or thirteen. I have to have twenty or else I don't! We have to maintain them around thirty-five. The teachers used to think that twenty-five and thirty was the limit. Now whenever a class gets under forty and everybody gets a place to sit down, they say, "That's fine." I have a lot of teachers that have carried from 175 to 200 students per day, and I venture to say that is true of most of the large cities represented here, or many of them.

So there are two places, the teacher load and the size of classes, where I don't think there would be any argument about what we would like. Grover Cleveland told a young man, "We are confronted with a condition and not a theory."

*Chairman McWhorter:* I am quite sure the report of the Committee on Standards will be quite satisfactory to you, but what the seventy-eight members of the Commission on Secondary Schools does with that report, I cannot guarantee. Is there any other suggestion along this particular line?

"What is the attitude of the Association toward teaching such laboratory subjects as physics, chemistry, botany, zoology, and biology on the demonstration plan?"

Of course, the question cannot be answered in the form in which it is put, but I shall be glad to know your experiences in this field. (No discussion) We might refer this to the Commission on Unit Courses and Curricula and have some good data upon this very thing.

The next question: "Attitude of the

Association toward accrediting schools in which the time requirement as prescribed in the definition of a unit of credit is not fully met."

This refers to the practice of certain high schools of allowing full credit for subjects usually regarded as being of the full laboratory type, such as industrial arts and drawing, and where the time devoted to the subject is only five 60-minute periods per week.

I have this letter which asks the question in another form: "At the Conference for High School Principals Thursday evening I should like to have the following problem discussed: Why should we differ in the various subject fields in the amount of credit obtained? More specifically, why should experience with a teacher in art receive just half as much credit as the same amount of experience with a mathematics teacher?"

We slurred over that same question last year. I wonder if we have something more elaborate to say about it tonight. It is a real issue. We have some suggestions which have at least an indirect bearing upon this problem in the report of the Committee on Standards tomorrow. However, we should like to hear some of the experience in the field, why you are having trouble with it. Is there any other question?

*Mr. C. S. Coons* (Froebel High School, Gary, Ind.): As I understand it, I believe the Association already has a set standard in regard to non-academic work. If I mistake not, that is put on about the same basis as laboratory work where two periods of that type of work is considered equivalent to one period of academic work.

*Chairman McWhorter:* The statement of the standard is quite clear, but the question was raised last year and discussed quite at length, but the real issue was evaded, I think.



*Mr. E. A. Spaulding* (Emerson High School, Gary, Ind.): I don't see, working with a course of study in a high school, how you could hope to get students, with whom you have enough difficulty already, in a good many cases, to take the academic subjects where they have an outside assignment required every day, if you are going to give them the same amount of credit for a subject where there is no outside assignment.

*Mr. Gibbs* (West Virginia): For a number of years in West Virginia we have been giving the same credit in all laboratory subjects run on a sixty-minute basis. Formerly we had a forty-five-minute period; then we had a double laboratory period. When we put all of our high schools on a sixty-minute basis, then we gave them the privilege of letting the sixty-minute period in laboratory work give the same credit as the other subjects. We have had no difficulty in filling any of the academic requirements.

*Chairman McWhorter*: A statement was made before our committee, I think yesterday, regarding the percentage of schools in this territory which have gone from the forty-five minute type of recitation to the sixty-minute type of recitation. May I ask for a show of hands in this audience tonight on how many have a sixty-minute or longer period? That is a much larger percentage than was indicated, more than half of those represented here.

Is there any other discussion of this point?

*Mr. C. S. Coons* (Froebel High School, Gary, Ind.): Would it be the attitude of this Association that a sixty-minute period of, say, industrial work would be equivalent to one academic period, say, of forty minutes in the clear?

*Chairman McWhorter*: I don't know

that I can answer for the Commission or for the committee, but I can answer for myself in just the same way I did last year with regard to this question. I don't think that is a particularly pertinent issue. I said last year in regard to an instance which I had had some experience with, that I never have any concern about the activity, the purposeful activity, the learning activity that is going on in a manual training class during the time that group is working under the direction of a skillful teacher, but I am sometimes concerned about the kind of activity that is going on, the kind of learning activity that is going on, in an academic class where a pupil has been assigned a lesson yesterday and tells the teacher about it today. I am afraid that that is the point upon which our educational issues have been drawn in connection with this particular thing, or rather on which they should be drawn. I don't believe, particularly, that the number of minutes that a pupil sits in a class has very much to do with the education he is getting. If that be heresy, make the most of it.

*Mr. A. W. Clevenger* (University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.): I know of several good high schools in the state of Illinois, where I am located, where the same amount of credit is given for a subject such as industrial arts on the sixty-minute plan, as for one of the so-called academic subjects, but the teacher of those subjects usually requires a certain amount of outside preparation, laboratory or library work and outside study. I think that is the answer to the question.

If the English teacher, for example, has a certain amount of outside preparation and gives a unit of credit for a sixty-minute period, and the industrial arts teacher has a certain amount of outside preparation, why not give the

same amount of credit for the same length of period?

*Mr. J. S. McCowan* (Central Senior High School, South Bend, Ind.): We have the sixty-minute period plan on both academic and vocational work. Our vocational teachers, I think in every case, for instance, shop work, give the mathematical problems that have to be worked outside in order to be prepared to do the regular shop work the next day. So I believe that our youngsters are getting about the same kind of preparation and training in the shops as is being given in the academic subjects.

*Chairman McWhorter*: "What is the attitude of the Association toward the accrediting of the high school which offers two or more types of diplomas for graduation?" By the way, how many of you are faced with that issue in your school system? Not so many, I am quite sure.

"For example, one diploma which is acceptable for entrance to college and another diploma which is not acceptable for college entrance." Has any school experimented with the certificate plan? (No discussion)

"What is the attitude of the Association toward the accrediting of a high school whose board of education follows the practice of selecting teachers without the advice and recommendation of the administrative head of the school?"

There is a direct answer to that question so far as our published policies are concerned in the standards as printed. I don't know that we need to consider that at length.

*Mr. H. G. Hotz*: I think in our dealing with that question we have uniformly held that where the situation was bad, the situation with reference to relationships between executive officers and the school board, the spirit and moral

tone of the school was usually not very favorable. I know of a number of instances where situations of that kind have occurred where these schools have been warned on Standard 5.

*Chairman McWhorter*: No. 14 has a similar intent as to the relations between the superintendent of school and the board of education which employs him.

"What shall be regarded as desirable working relationships between a board of education and the principal or superintendent directly in charge of a high school?"

"What practices involving the working relationships between the administrative head of the school and board of education shall be regarded as unacceptable in the accrediting of high schools?"

I don't believe that we wish to be more specific in Standard 5 than we are at present, in a categorical answer to that question. However, I know you have your problems which are quite vocal and sometimes worse than that.

Now this last question which has been presented. Music has come in for one round this evening. Let us just mention it again in closing. Perhaps we might rise and sing as the audience disperses.

"What is the attitude of the Association toward the continued accrediting of a high school in which the program of music is allowed to interfere with other school subjects to such an extent that pupils are allowed to miss various classes in order to take music?"

*Professor H. R. Douglass* (University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.): May I interrupt for about fifteen seconds? There are a number of principals that I know who are very much interested in Topic No. 12. They are not here this evening. For example, I know one Minneapolis principal is very much interested in that matter. I should like to ask if there is any principal or super-



intendent or other individual here who has had experience with the double diploma system, who would be kind enough to drop me a few lines telling me what his experience has been with it. If you don't remember the initials, send it to Douglass, College of Education, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis. Your experience will be very valuable to a number of us who are

wanting to know more about that sort of thing. If there are enough of us who will report experiences, I will guarantee to work it up into some sort of an article or something, and distribute it at some meeting or publish it in some journal.

*Chairman McWhorter:* Do you wish to discuss this matter of musical interference? Have you any other questions before we adjourn? We stand adjourned.

## WHITHER EDUCATION?<sup>1</sup>

C. A. DYKSTRA

*City Manager of Cincinnati*

IN a sense the problem of education is like the traffic problem. Everybody knows all about it and yet it is never solved. It has been pulled to pieces innumerable times. But it never gets put together to suit anybody. And so it is always under discussion.

Certain questions recur constantly:

Is education for a life or for a living?  
What shall we teach and how?  
Shall teaching be free or fettered?  
Shall education be universal or selective?  
What is wrong with education?

I do not know all the answers, but some reflection on the problem while looking on for a few years, and this invitation to address you, have crystallized certain impressions which I bring to you for what they may be worth.

Education today cannot agree upon objectives because civilization is in flux. Nothing is constant but *change*. Old habits, desires, and motives have broken down and we seem at a loss to set up new ones. Up to the 18th century, for the most part, we taught what we had been taught, and although in some senses the 18th was a century of intellectual turmoil, comparatively few were much concerned until well on toward the end of the era. The 19th century brought with it universal education, but in spite of the development of the idea of progress we still believed quite universally in certain fundamentals and verities. As a matter of fact, until the 20th century dawned we were quite sure we knew what to teach and how to teach it.

We taught the classics as well as the 3 R's, and just before the turn of the century we plunged into science with a vengeance. We had the constitution to tie to and certain agreed-upon American principles. We had the moralities and certain codes of manners. We had *laissez faire* and *democracy*, a workable individualism, and the gospel of hard work and thrift. There was room at the top and our national economy welcomed the oncoming generations with open arms. Men lived and died for such ideas. There was a finality about them that admitted no argument and subordinated every interest to them. Our institutions were built on such absolutes.

Up until the generation of which we are a part, the world of ideas moved deliberately and pretty slowly. Great changes did not come in a single lifetime and father and son lived pretty much the same life. Constantine, Charlemagne, Queen Elizabeth, Shakespeare, Voltaire, Washington, all read by candle light, bathed very little, never moved faster than a horse can run, sowed grain and reaped it by hand, never wore a machine-made article of clothing, wrote long-hand, and never heard of an ad for tooth-paste. You and I—if we are in middle life—saw the coming of the motor car, the airplane, the radio, the power press, the age of advertising and propaganda, the movie, the talkies, and the universalizing of utility services. This is all very familiar and needs no exposition, but it does require understanding.

This new generation, the youth of this day, has more sophistication and more scientific knowledge than Abraham Lin-

<sup>1</sup> An address delivered before the Association on Saturday, April 13, 1935.—THE EDITOR.



coln could muster when he was elected president. The boy of today knows more of the life in all parts of the world than did any except the most experienced travelers of fifty years ago. He knows how the wild animals of Africa live in the jungles; he has seen them on the screen. His grandfather at his age was thrilled by Barnum's elephant. Even the boy of ten has seen war in all of its drama and terror and can tell you of life in the trenches.

What shall you teach a generation that in fancy and in vicarious experience has roamed the world, seen everything objective which seems to have importance, knows the processes of manufacture of silk or automobiles, has heard Admiral Byrd talking from the South Pole, and can tell you besides the secret of the beginnings of organic life and its unfolding? What taboos can terrify him, what copy-book maxims edify him, what dogmas and precepts influence him—this youth who talks glibly of the stratosphere, the cosmic ray, and the causes of epidemics and earthquakes? Tell the youth of today that warts come from handling frogs and watch his condescending smile and hear his "Oh Yeah?" What is youth's reaction to "The Green Pastures"?

For a century we have assumed that youth should be taught the things he should know to get on in the world. He should read and write, of course, and know how to do his sums. He should be trained to apply himself and his labor to the subjugation of a continent and the manipulation of certain individual techniques. Self-reliance, independence, thrift, initiative, honesty mixed with shrewdness, and that elusive thing known as success—these needed cultivation and attainment. These were the virtues in an individualistic world in which life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness were self-evident, inalienable rights in

a universe in which all men are created equal. You may hear on the radio any day the program put on by your bank appealing for the cultivation of these virtues.

Well—this was the real world in America a hundred years ago. At least it seemed to be the real world because for practical living in a frontier country of inexhaustible resources the illusion was perfect. The environment in which the ordinary American found himself in 1850 proved to him that the Declaration of Independence had come of age; it was a charter of life to him and not merely the torch of revolutionary propaganda.

Today when we look back at 1850 we ask ourselves how our grandfathers could have been so incredibly naive as to assume that resources were inexhaustible and that they should be captured and exploited as rapidly as possible. That was the way to success—to wealth; that was building a fortune, and the fortune would take care of the grandchildren.

This whole attitude carried over into our industrial techniques and the manipulation of the machine. Our psychology inevitably became one of "capture and hold"; our business strategy was developed as for a battle field in a drawn-out economic war. The slogan eventually became "rugged individualism," based on a theory of economic self-interest called "enlightened."

#### ABSOLUTES IN EDUCATION

It was for a world of competitive gain that we organized our education. And we made out a good case for the system. It was truth because it worked; it had pragmatic sanction. Now we question the whole regime by which we have lived, or, to admit the very least, we agree that we pushed it too far. Competition drove us to combination and monopoly, then to speculation, over

development and unbalanced production, and finally to wide-spread disaster and unprecedented unemployment.

What wonder that we ask ourselves what to do about education in the future? Our youngsters face a world which seems to promise them very little. "Room at the top?", they re-echo; "why there's no room even at the very bottom of the heap. Give us bread and circuses." From the ranks of youth come the fascist movements of the western world. They want something to tie to—somebody to believe in, to trust, and to follow. The idols reared for our youth during the golden age of the new economic era have been found to have feet of clay. The success magazines are no longer popular in a generation of skepticism and cynicism.

#### AIMS IN EDUCATION

I shall not presume in a few minutes to give a complete picture of what education today ought to be. I could not do it even if given the fullness of time. But from the point of view of a public administrator looking on there are certain fields which should receive some emphasis and have some attention.

May I assume in this discussion that the aim of education should be the development of an intelligent and complete adult whose faculties, emotions, and intellectual powers continue to ripen during his experience with life—an adult, if you please, who, among other acquisitions, "gets wisdom" in the scriptural sense? Whether such an adult can be produced by "progressive education" as demanded by activityists, by the project method, or by other or even newer ways of approach, I have no means of knowing. For my purpose we need only examine the product of the educational process. What adult are we to produce by any system of teaching we may adopt? Certainly not the flabby, senti-

mental, grasping and self-satisfied individual we now meet among the middle-aged exponents and defenders of our present slogans and shibboleths. Not the adult who finds his most solid satisfaction in the successful "deal," the Ziegfeld Follies, an electric baseball score board, or a raid on some pitiful headquarters where copies of the "Manifesto" or "The Daily Worker" may be found. Certainly not the adult who believes that all public enterprise is corrupt and self-defeating and that all private operation is uplifting and spiritually sound. Not that adult who exploits human beings and declares himself the product of the school of hard knocks. Not the ruthless tactician and strategist of our industrial warfare. Certainly not the adult who fears the human mind and the processes of free inquiry—one who sees something new and terrible peeking from behind the trunk of the tree of knowledge. Strange, is it not, how we suspect our own creative intelligence and struggle against giving it fair play!

The adult we seek should be adjusted to a world in which there is no longer a limitless frontier and untouched resources for the taking. It is a world of power machinery in which hand labor is more and more unnecessary. It is a world in which neighbors are close by and in which distance has been annihilated. Competition and individual opportunity give way in accelerating fashion to combination and mass enterprise in this new, artificial, and non-natural environment. We find this world one of wage and salary workers, with fewer and fewer owner-operators (i.e. entrepreneurs) and a small but increasing number of persons who live by unearned income.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> In 1929 there were some 2,000,000 "income recipients" who were not gainfully employed. The Brookings Institute Study, "America's Capacity to Consume," indicates that 6,000,000 families (21 per cent) had incomes of less than \$1,000,



It is a world in which society organized in governments finds itself irresistibly impelled to interfere with free enterprise in order to secure for its members a minimum subsistence and a tolerable existence. It is a world of minimums set in an age of possible plenty. It is a world of inequalities which boasts of equal opportunities; it is a powder magazine ready to be touched off unless the adult ceases to be a juvenile. And yet, and perhaps, most significant, this is a world in which science and all its handmaidens beckon to and plead for the adult civilized man.

#### OPPORTUNITIES FOR EDUCATION

From the point of view of this presentation of education as a public rather than as a private problem what are some things we cannot neglect in the near future? The clash of old and new social systems thunders about us, and we who believe in some of the old and some of the new must perforce keep our heads and maintain some sense of direction.

First of all let us recognize the hazards of modern life and face the facts, however difficult. This is the grown-up attitude toward reality. It is not an exaggeration to suggest that in spite of modern progress the hazards of primitive life still persist. The primitive man was never safe; he knew hunger, starvation, slavery, and exposure, and he was always in fear and dread of what might happen to him within the hour. Man seems to face life today with much the

same fear. The machine with its attendant increase in production is credited with having made man master in his own house, but it would appear that his mastership is still open to question.

We still ask whether man is master of the machine or whether he has become its slave. Are not the old hazards still with us, refined somewhat, but just as cruel? No doubt we must come to the conclusion that the nineteenth and twentieth centuries did not end the hazards—even of primitive life. Physical science has done much to reduce them in so far as mechanics are concerned. But the very perfection of our production machinery has been disastrous to our economic and social system. All about us are the hazards of war, crime, sudden accidental death and the more immediate tragic impact of wide-spread unemployment. Our education must, therefore, prepare adults who can establish some semblance of social and economic security. This is a challenge to the social sciences. What, in any scientific and unemotional way, do we know in terms of their final impact on human welfare of the processes of modern industry and business? How clearly is our generation thinking and acting on the problems of war and crime? Selfish individual and national interests, and our primitive and seemingly untutored reactions, are making a shambles of the beautiful planet on which we live. Here is the race between education and catastrophe of which Wells wrote. I commend as a worthy educational undertaking an analysis of and a reckoning with the hazards of modern life. Let us try to understand them.

Second, the man of tomorrow will be the product of mutual aid and must develop his sense of society and social responsibility. Large-scale enterprises which the inexorable march of capitalism created have changed our practical atti-

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12,000,000 families (42 per cent) had incomes of less than \$1,500, 20,000,000 families (71 per cent) had incomes of less than \$2,500, and 600,000 families (2.3 per cent) had incomes of more than \$10,000.00. The 12,000,000 families received a total of \$10,000,000,000; 36,000 families (\$75,000 a year and more) received \$9,800,000,000; 1 per cent of the families at the top had as much as 42 per cent at the bottom; 60 per cent of American families in 1929 had less than \$2,000—regarded in 1929 at current prices as a minimum sufficient income.

tude toward individual enterprise and achievement without orienting our common ideology. Philosophically and intellectually we have not comprehended what has been happening to our economy.

The machine and mass production have changed our economic organization almost beyond recognition, but we have developed no rational basis for this new organizing of our lives. In our intellectual confusion we face those who organize discontent and despair and have no answer which satisfies anybody. Unable to function in the normal and usual way, our western peoples have thrown overboard their nineteenth century habits of mind and their democratic societies and taken the plunge with a dictator of one kind or another. Unable to choose for itself, too weary to work out orderly social processes which continue to guarantee life as individuals, many a society has resolved the problem of forfeiting its freedom. This is a confession of defeat in the face of the immediate results of modern industrialism. It is a return to childhood and primitive instincts; it is a turning back of the clock.

Education in America must stand in the way of any such defeatism. This means that we must develop those attitudes which make a great society out of irresponsible individuals. We pay lip service to some amorphous idea vaguely apprehended as cooperation, but what do we know, for instance, of organizations known as "cooperatives"? In college we pull together in an eight-oared shell, but how much have we developed the long pull together in city or state? We have lauded the virtues of the frontier, but have we taught the values that inhere in a civilized life—in the art of living together?

Benjamin Franklin, on the eve of the American Revolution, is credited with

saying "Gentlemen, we must hang together or separately." And so it is with us today—we must learn to live together or perhaps not live at all. The time is here to write a declaration of interdependence, for the day of separation is over. Mutual and fraternal organizations we have in extraordinary numbers, but we have yet to develop a society in which most primitive hazards of the pleistocene age are banished forever. And so it would seem that our education fails for tomorrow unless it can develop a generation committed to a great adventure in mutual aid and an understanding of the processes necessary to a great society. Doubtless we are developing "the intervening state" which will attempt to right the balance thrown out of tune in the economic struggle of recent years. So long as America could provide a rising standard of living for most of our people the lack of balance in our economic system and the concentration of wealth did not matter so much. Intervention by the state seemed a sacrilege. But the day of reckoning is here and we cannot dodge our joint undertaking. To make a success of it will require standards of social responsibility which as yet are all too novel with most of us.

And this brings us to a third challenge to the schools—if the state is to intervene and we are to have more rather than less government action, who shall administer this great undertaking? Manifestly our education for the field of public service has been woefully weak. For fifty years we have given traditional allegiance to the idea called "civil service," but we have not developed a career service such as other modern nations know. One has only to realize how dominant in so many jurisdictions is the practice of the spoilsman, to reach the sad conclusion that our education has missed the mark at this point. With notable ex-



ceptions in some of our federal and municipal services, we still consider that a public position is a private job and we carry into public life all of the psychology that goes with private undertakings. Appointments, contracts, orders for insurance, and other such opportunities, all too universally are assumed to be commodities to be dispensed in payment for party and political service. Thus we carry the ethics of personal and ordinary business operations into the fiduciary relationships between public servants and citizens.

"In our laboratories we are the most professional nation on the face of the earth," says Henry Goddard Leach, "but in the science of government we are probably the most amateurish of all so-called civilized peoples." Other nations ask young men to prepare for public life, and orderliness of public administration is the result. Even Russia, a hundred years behind us in political practice and knowledge, and starting from scratch, is training all youth in a knowledge of government—ruthlessly perhaps—but with deadly seriousness. In a clarion call for an educated public service Leach writes, "Let America now prepare and prepare swiftly a new civil service class of clear-thinking young men and women, trained for the new humanitarian era, to take root in city and federal government and gradually to drive out the elements which thrive on graft and racketeering and which until now have made American political life distasteful to the better class of citizens." Even more necessary, it seems to me, because fundamental and precedent, must our schools teach a generation to demand a high-minded politics and an intelligent public service. Nevertheless, both must develop together so that the demand for trained servants, when it comes, will find a supply ready to serve.

A fourth reflection follows from what

has just been emphasized. Self-government is impossible without some training in self-discipline. In our striving during a generation or two for self-expression in the schools we have either neglected or failed to inculcate self-discipline. Perhaps it is the times—for we have lived through blatant times—but we who are in places of public responsibility sense a recklessness and an abandon among adults and youth which show themselves in an utter disregard of the rights of others. This is even more true of the children from the so-called better homes—those, for instance, where there are automobiles to drive. Here is a task in which school and home must join—but certainly it is the business of educators to lead the way.

The development of individual personality is of the highest importance, of course, but equally necessary is the teaching of reverence for personality in others. Human beings must express human values, and sympathy for other humans is at least as important as sympathy for a forlorn mongrel of the canine family. And our generation *is* good to dogs.

And so it seems to me that we must ask our schools to produce adults with self-control, self-discipline, and with some ability to put themselves in the other fellow's place. This kind of training is essential to civilized life and to the cooperative commonwealth. Ours is to be a life of participation and not escape. There was a time in our history when the anti-social and non-social individual could go west and fight Indians or whack into a primitive forest. Now, however, we are forced to live with others, to bear and forbear. It is an existence for which many of us need long and severe training if we are to live decently and with dignity. And so in our getting let us get also self-discipline and fellow-feeling.

In no sense have I boxed the educational compasses or tried to speak of education except as it touches the realm of public activities and reactions. For, as I see the problem, education for today and tomorrow inevitably must be concerned with the public and community aspects of the individual as well as with the training of individual potentialities. I do not believe that the individual is made for the state and that he is but an instrument to be played on by the state. But the individual is a part of the state and must aid in working out the destiny of his community. He is an integral fac-

tor of a cooperative enterprise which will succeed or fail in proportion as the participants are team workers or have their eyes on the main chance. Since the time of Plato mankind has debated the question of organization versus freedom. Some day there may be common agreement that without both we can have little of either. The solo instrument is a lovely thing, but does not compare in grandeur, beauty, or power with the full orchestra. So it is with the individual. He may be great and fine in his own right, but without his fellows he cannot climb to the stars.



*Public source*

*Deputation*

*to state*

## THE DUTY OF THE STATE<sup>1</sup>

PAUL V. MCNUTT  
*Governor of Indiana*

WE are here in an effort to keep one of the finest instrumentalities of our national life from falling short of its best. As the circumstances of the people change, the functions of government change. Government is not in itself something. It is for something. Just now it is for economic rehabilitation of our people and for the preservation of our fundamental institutions. One of the most important of these institutions is our system of public education.

The change carries with it tremendous responsibilities and the possibility of far-reaching consequences. It offers an opportunity to prove that government may be a great instrument of human progress. It is the ray of hope that heartens us as we follow a path which has been dark with ominous shadows.

This is not a static world. Many of our so-called captains of industry and many who had claimed leadership in other activities thought it was. They held fast to old theories and were at a loss when they found that the old theories did not meet the demand of the new day. The situation demands courage, intelligence, determination and hope. It calls for a constructive program on the part of responsible officers of government.

The program must bring forth a new, a greater, a continuous patriotism on the part of all citizens. Some look upon patriotism as a thing reserved for periods of armed conflict. They wait for the

blare of martial music, the sound of marching feet, and the rumble of the caisson to quicken the pulse and inspire supreme devotion to the common cause. They are sustained by the excitement of the moment and lose all interest in public matters when hostilities cease. Such intermittent attention to the general welfare does not satisfy present needs.

The struggle to restore economic equilibrium is as grim and as real as any war. It calls for the same unselfish service, energy, intelligence and solidarity. It requires the same willingness to give all that we are and all that we hope to be without thought of reward save the accomplishment of high purposes.

It is possible to know the truth without fear, to meet a crisis with indomitable courage. Yet, there are those among us who are afraid, who listen to prophets of evil. They profess to see the end of representative government, now rudely challenged by communism, by fascism, and some think, by technocracy. They say that democracy in theory is not democracy in practice, that popular sovereignty is an elusive concept, that the right to have a voice in government is not a prized possession.

I wish to be counted among those who deny such a doctrine. I believe in the destiny of democracy as a system of government, believe in it more profoundly than in anything else human. It is true that science and the machines born of science have greatly altered the ways of men and women and have created manifestly serious problems. But the problems of the present are not more difficult than some for which satisfac-

<sup>1</sup> An address delivered before the Banquet Session of the Association, April 12, 1935.—THE EDITOR.

tory solutions were found in the past.

This is another testing time for representative government. Our high enterprise must be to prove it sufficient in every circumstance and for every task which can come to free people. We face a magnificent opportunity in which we, as lovers of freedom, dare not fail.

These are the immediate responsibilities to be met by any present program:

- To provide food, clothing and shelter for the destitute, the aged and the infirm;

- To provide gainful employment for the unemployed;

- To balance the governmental budget by lowering the costs of government and simplifying its operations;

- To revivify industry through cooperative action;

- To restore agriculture to a profitable basis;

- To stabilize and restore confidence in our financial institutions;

- To remove the fear of debt and foreclosure on the part of the farm and small home owners;

- To maintain an adequate system of public education;

- To promote the efficient administration of justice;

- To strengthen necessary social agencies;

- To remove special privilege from the seats of power;

- To offer every assistance in restoring economic equilibrium; and

- To restore the confidence of the people in themselves and in their institutions.

Important as all of these matters are, I wish to emphasize two, without which the others are of little consequence. When the Saviour said, "After this manner therefore pray ye," His first petition was, "Give us this day our daily bread." It is not that man lives by bread alone. Things of the spirit are likewise necessary. But it is significant that, through the ages, hungry people have been in the vanguard of every revolt against the established order. A hungry man is never rational in his attitude toward the life of the community or toward his own life. Therefore, it is the business of government to make those adjustments

which guarantee to every man and woman the right to live as a normal human being.

It is also the business of government to give adequate support to public education. The first of these obligations runs to the unfortunates themselves; the other obligation runs to society as a whole. The hope for future prosperity and leadership lies in trained men and women. Children are born and grow up in periods of depression as well as in periods of prosperity. It is impossible to arrest their development. They have but one chance, which cannot be postponed.

Is there a single citizen, who sees his duty, who conceives it in highest terms and who spends himself not upon his ambitions but in the duty that is before him, who denies this obligation of the state?

Not though there are times when circumstance pulls tight the purse strings!

When economy wears the face of virtue!

When resistance to all causes seems a matter of necessity!

The school children of the United States have been made to sacrifice their educational opportunities in a fashion that threatens the democratic structure of American society.

Two thousand rural American schools failed to open last September. This deprived 110,000 children of their educational opportunities. Two thousand, six hundred other rural schools were closed at the beginning of 1935 affecting 140,000 children. It is estimated that about 20,000 additional schools will close during the month, affecting more than 1,000,000 children. These pupils, together with 2,280,000 children between the ages of six and fifteen who have no educational opportunities even in normal years, make a total of 3,530,000 boys and girls deprived of schooling.



Because of lack of funds one out of every four cities has shortened its school term. Terms in practically every large city are one or two months shorter than they were seventy to one hundred years ago. Even in normal times the American school year is 172 days as contrasted with 200 days for France, 210 days each for Sweden and England and 246 days each for Germany and Denmark.

Schools in the United States received approximately \$133,000,000 less for the year 1933-34 than for the year 1932-33, and \$563,000,000 less than in 1929-30. These cuts have been made despite the fact that the schools are now responsible for 960,000 more pupils than in 1930, because of the new child labor regulations and the inability of older students to find employment.

Reactionary critics of the school clamor for one thing above all else; balancing the budget. The easiest target for their attacks has been the schools. They point to an increase of 300 per cent in school expenditures. They neglect, however, to show these facts about the increased load on the schools:

1. High school enrollment has increased since 1900 from 519,000 to 5,460,000 in 1930. This is an increase of 1,052 per cent.
2. Elementary school enrollment has increased from 15,000,000 in 1900 to 21,000,000 in 1934, an increase of 40 per cent.
3. The purchasing power of the dollar has decreased 48 per cent since 1914.
4. Children employed in gainful occupations decreased 75 per cent between 1910 and 1930. These unemployed children are now in school.
5. Most of the NRA codes prohibit the employment of children under eighteen. These children also turn to the school for more education.
6. In recent years thousands of adults have called upon the school for courses in vocational and leisure time subjects. This has been an additional but very desirable burden upon the schools. These courses, however, are being abandoned because of lack of funds.

It costs approximately \$90 a year to keep a child in school in prosperous

times. It costs approximately \$300 a year to keep a person in prison a year. The United States has spent \$1,500,000,000 a year to incarcerate 50,000 prisoners. We are spending only \$200,000,000 more than that for the education of 26,000,000 school children. Which is the better expenditure?

At the present time there are 3,000,000 young people grouped around the ages of 18 to 20 who are out of school and out of work. They have been termed "the lost generation." They are at a critical age. For them to remain idle constitutes a gigantic loss. No civilization can cut off its growth and live.

A startling announcement was made recently by the United States Department of Justice. From January 1 to September 30, 1933, the Department of Justice examined the arrest records of 240,071 individuals whose finger print cards were received from local law enforcement officials throughout the country. It was found that the number of those arrested who were nineteen years old was greater than the number for any other single age group.

Senator Copeland's committee has shown that the cost of crime in the United States is almost \$13,000,000,000 annually. This is a stupendous figure. The surest method of meeting crime is not less but more education, and better and more thoroughly socialized schools. The same is true of every major national problem.

Adequate support of public education is one of the few paramount duties of an enlightened government. Whose is the loss if we fail in the complete performance of that duty?

A man will feed his own, though he himself goes hungry. And he will save one corner of the earth in which he may be regarded with honor and devotion. There are three dwellings which, on earth, a man may claim: his house, his

church, his school. The first is his. The other two he has a part in according to the degree in which he puts his heart and effort into them. By his hearthstone he may live safe and sheltered, but in these wider dwellings, he finds the finer security of fellowship in communion with the invisible powers that inspire service. Loyalty weaves of spirit a stronger cord than common sense can furnish fiber for. Can it fail to bind our people to our system of public education?

If there are moments when you said "Our system of education is not all that I would have it"—think of this: Whose are the hands that have made, or fore-born to make its traditions? If you have failed to lend it strength, now is the time to repair that error.

Education moves forward to perform its service to society. Are you with it? If you are, to the limit of your power, you cannot be outdistanced by those of greater fortune or capacity. You have your place in the procession. If you choose to stand aside, whose loss is greater: education's, that you have forsaken it; or yours, that it can no longer claim you?

We hear much talk of economy in government. It is imperative that the cost of government be reduced and the burden equitably distributed. However, it is possible to have rigorous frugality without false economy. False economy threatens some of these fundamental institutions. What we need is wisdom in governmental expenditures. If expenditures are wisely made, they will be economically sound. That is the important thing. Public education is a necessity in a Republic such as ours. It is one of our ideals of government. Without it we turn our backs on the painfully accumulated wisdom of the ages and start back on the road to barbarism. The continuance of our government depends upon

the welfare and the trained intelligence of the people.

Have we come to the place in life where luxuries for private consumption are of greater social importance than governmental expenditures for necessities? Are we willing to pull out the foundation stone of economic progress because we are afraid that we cannot weather the present economic storm?

I grant that this is a critical period. There is in some quarters fear of worse. It is said that the whole structure of our society is threatened by the communism of Russia. Not alone by its propaganda, but also by its alleged power to undersell and thus to bankrupt the entire world. It is said that dull-witted, vain and insolent, we slap roundly on the rump the four horses of the Apocalypse, and bid them prepare anew to trample the human herd. It is said that in spite of our science and invention, or because of them, we are approaching a period such as that which followed the decline of the Roman Empire. Ferrero, historian of Rome, says that. Spengler, in a book counted one of the weightiest in several ways of the century, says that we are approaching our swift-coming, unavoidable doom. Even such a man as Henry Adams, descendant of presidents, student of affairs, both economic and political, says that he sees upon the scroll of destiny for the United States of America four frightful choices: First, the pessimism of Europe's dying civilization; second, the tyranny of capital or of labor; third, a return to mysticism or to clerical dominion; or fourth, ceaseless reiteration of the old processes under new guises at a monotonous level. Those are four frightful choices and they do not belong upon our scroll of destiny.

Does Mr. Adams mean that he has lost faith in our people? Does he mean that he has lost faith in the ability of the masses, as contrasted with the heroes



of the miracle men and their classes, to work out by reasonably adequate methods the issues which are raised in the flow of time? Certainly he does not mean that. Every page of our history refutes such a statement.

Does he mean that he has lost faith in the genius of the American people, a genius which has produced more by way of scientific achievement during the last decade and a half than has been produced in any half century of the world's history? Certainly that genius is still with us. Certainly it can produce for us those things which are absolutely essential,—health, security, some share of this world's goods, some leisure time in which to enjoy that share, some ability and some desire to make a worthwhile contribution to the sum of things as they are.

I, for one, disbelieve the most of these frightening prophecies and defy the rest. Who are these prophets of evil and where have they been? To use the words of Carlyle, "They have been nowhere but where we also have been, and have seen at most a few handbreadths deeper than we now see into the ocean which is without bottom and without shore." Rather than choose the words of Ferrero, or Spengler, or Henry Adams, or any of the great hosts of major and minor Jeremiahs, I would choose the words of two men who faced crises in their day. The first of these was Julius Caesar, who said, "Cowards die many times before their deaths; the valiant never taste of death but once." The second was the man who stood at Valley Forge midst privation and suffering and kept his faith, kept his faith in his men, kept his faith in his nation which was to be, kept his faith in his God. Washington said then (and his words are particularly applicable now), "The game is yet in our own hands. To play it well is all we have to do. Nothing but honesty, har-

mony, industry and frugality are necessary to make us a great and a happy people." The game is *yet* in our own hands. To play it well is all *we* have to do. Nothing but honesty, harmony, industry and frugality are necessary to *keep* us a great and happy people.

Three courses of action are open to our people. First, to surrender in the face of our manifestly serious problems. Second, to attempt to preserve those institutions which have grown up through the years. The first course is unthinkable; the second un-American. No nation stands in one spot,—it either moves forward or it moves backward. Happily the faces of the American people have been turned forward.

A third course is the only one open to us if we are to be worthy of the fine heritage which is ours, if we are to save our souls from damnation. That course is the one which Foch took during the darkest hour of the World War, when everything had gone against him,—everything. He sent this message. "My left is giving way, my right is falling back. Therefore I am ordering a charge, a decisive attack by the center." We can order a charge and can move forward with courage, with determination, with intelligence, solve our problems and bring about a better social and economic era in this nation. However, it will not be possible for us to make this third choice if we deny our children access to the door of progress, which is education.

Some states have chosen the third course. Indiana is one. The Constitution of Indiana sets out that the General Assembly shall provide by law for a general and uniform system of common schools wherein tuition shall be free and equally open to all. It also provides that a tax may be assessed by the General Assembly for common school support. The first law, providing for a local tuition tax, was declared unconstitutional.

Later, this decision was reversed with the result that local school tax rates increased and the state school tax rate decreased. The reduction in the state school tax rate and the unequal distribution of wealth gradually brought about conditions which made educational opportunity far from equal for all of the children of the state. One township would have a term of one hundred days, while an adjoining township, where there was a railroad, would have one hundred and eighty days, both having the same local tuition tax rate.

This inequality persisted until 1905, when the first school relief law became operative and the state provided enough money in addition to the local levy to have a six months' term.

The General Assembly adopted a salary bill in 1920 making the minimum salary for teachers \$800. Consolidations and increased attendance raised school expenditures to such an extent that the General Assembly in 1921 increased the state tax rate from 5.2 cents to 7 cents and set aside 30 per cent of this 7 cent levy as a school relief or equalization fund. This relief covered all school expenditures except capital outlay. In 1929 it became necessary to increase the school relief fund from 30 per cent to 45 per cent of the 7 cent state common school levy, in addition to the receipts from the chain store tax. The minimum local tax rate to secure a school relief was fixed at \$1.20.

In 1932 the General Assembly passed the so-called \$1.50 law, fixing the maximum levy for all taxing units at \$1.50 on the \$100.00. Where county tax adjustment boards declared no emergency under this law, many school corporations faced the possibility of reducing the term to three months. Some were not eligible for state aid and others had barely enough to meet bond requirements. To meet the obvious need and

to save public education, the 1933 General Assembly enacted the school support law, authorizing the state to pay \$600 per teacher to the employing school unit, on the basis of an average daily attendance of thirty-five pupils, or major fraction thereof, for the elementary teacher, and twenty-five pupils, or major fraction thereof, for the high school teacher. One room schools and all others unable to meet their requirements become emergency cases to be handled by the State Board of Education.

The school relief law provides a state tax of 7 cents and authorizes the State Board of Education to fix the minimum local school tax rate and to make such other regulations as are necessary in order that the school units of low assessed valuation may avail themselves of school relief. This law enables all school units to have a minimum term of eight months and to have a property tax of \$1.50 or less. The minimum wage law fixes the elementary teacher's salary at a minimum wage of \$800 per school year, and the high school teacher's salary at a minimum wage of \$1,000 per school year. None of these laws prevents a school unit from having a longer term or paying a greater wage than that set out in the law if it so elects. This school program will be financed by a gross income tax and intangibles tax and the interest from the state common school fund.

This is Indiana's answer to the question, "How to save the schools during a period of economic stress." The Indiana program is important because it demonstrates conclusively that there is an answer to the school problem.

The entire obligation in this hour of need does not rest upon the state. It rests upon those who are actively engaged in educational work. It is necessary for them to make a critical and searching examination of all of their

agencies, to see which, if any, have outlived their usefulness. This is the time for perfect candor—no bragging, no pretense that things are better than they are, no tolerance of what should not be tolerated. All must work together to preserve and to improve our system of public education in order that the children of all of the people may claim their birthright of equality of opportunity.

I know of many things that must be done. We know full well that we are producing today too many for the teaching profession. There must be elimination within our teacher-training institutions. You talk of recruiting; you talk of proselyting. I say there is upon the record of many of our teacher training institutions this black mark of keeping many there who have no business in the teaching profession, and never will have. You must have the courage to make the selection, to make the elimination there. Then you cannot point the accusing finger, as you do point it now, to the township trustee who employs certain teachers who are not qualified. Who gave them the minimum qualification? You, and you, and you. I know where they came from. In our state, they can't be employed unless you pass them on.

You point at the politicians. I will point back at some of you. Rather a curious distinction to make! I have known some educators who were pretty fair politicians.

I will go a bit beyond that today. Of course, there are outworn and obsolete units of government. I hope we can have the courage to get rid of the trustee system. Not a word from you! Not a word from lots of people, but there is no place in any system of government or in any institution today for any man or any agency that cannot justify itself. The time to make changes; the time to bring about reform is in a time of eco-

nomic stress. It cannot be done at any other time. The attention is focused then upon necessary changes.

Education is the more important because of economic changes. There never was a time when it was so necessary for the educational processes to help save society by the revelation of truth. Past circumstances produced needs, or supposed needs, which yielded theories in support of them. One theory was that of the necessity of "rugged individualism." Another theory was that of unrestrained competition. At one time this may have been a useful economic creed. Originally it described our attitude toward producers, especially producers who wrenched economic goods from sources of natural supply. Nature offered sufficient resistance to ill equipped producers to keep the market under supplied. The problem of overproduction did not exist. The ruthless creed of free competition was appropriate enough to the task of conquering the continent, which necessarily was our great preoccupation during the nineteenth century. Competition was assumed to be an inherent part of democracy. We thought that a non-competitive world was an undemocratic world. It was impossible to foresee the revolutionary impact of productive forces upon the very institutions which they were expected to maintain. Circumstances changed. Natural resources no longer resisted the instrumentalities of their exploitation. Our economic course carried us from a long period of economic development to the present period, which confronts us with the necessity for economic maintenance. In this period of maintenance there is a capacity for more production than is consumable, at least under a system which decreases purchasing power while it increases capacity of production. In this period of maintenance the fact, and it is a fact, of dependence of all production upon a



monetary market vitalizes not only problems of transportation, distribution and exchange, but also the fact of indispensable coordination of these factors of our economy. Even more, this dependence of our total economic life upon the market makes more and more conspicuous the dependence of our economic existence upon the purchasing power of the consumer—upon wages and protected prices.

We are trying to eliminate the anarchy of the competitive system and to ameliorate the occurrence and recurrence of our spirals of inflation and deflation. The great experiment is a denial of the old notion that war, famine and pestilence are the natural controls over the standards of living. It is a denial of the theory that panics, deflation and bankruptcy are our only remedy for overproductivity in industry. It is a statement of a new creed that the Amer-

ican people, through their self-reliance and ingenuity can control overcapacity and reconstruct the purchasing power.

Education is our chief means for giving widespread stimulation to our whole recovery movement and for supplying ourselves with men and women who shall both comprehend their age and duty and know how to serve them well. Without education our children would be too exclusively shut in to their pursuits and individual interests, would lose vital contacts and emulations which awaken them to those larger achievements and sacrifices, which are the highest objects of education in a country of free citizens. The welfare of the state springs out of the character and the informed purposes of the private citizen.

Education carries the high hopes and aspirations of our people in the days to come. God helping, it will not fail them.

*Report of the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education  
and Secondary Schools. Committee  
on Physical Education and Athletics*

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REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON PHYSICAL EDUCATION  
AND ATHLETICS<sup>1</sup>

FOLLOWING the meeting in 1934 of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools and in accordance with the instructions of the Board of Review, the chairman of the Committee on Physical Education and Athletics visited the University of Denver and Colorado College.

A careful study was made by the chairman of athletic conditions in these two institutions. Conferences were held with the administrators and faculty committees of the two institutions and as a result most of the important problems were solved.

Reports of these inspections were filed with the Board of Review.

A meeting of the Rocky Mountain Conference was held in Denver and the chairman of the committee on Physical Education and Athletics was asked to address this Conference. It is unnecessary to make any report of this meeting except to say that the Rocky Mountain Conference is cooperating with the North Central Association in its efforts to maintain appropriate college standards in athletics and physical education.

The Indiana Intercollegiate Conference filed an application in 1931 for recognition by the North Central Association but the petition inadvertently escaped the attention of our officers and was not presented. The following letter written in 1931 should be incorporated in this report:

December 15, 1931

Dean George A. Works  
University of Chicago  
Chicago, Illinois  
My dear Dean Works:

At the annual meeting of the Indiana Intercollegiate Conference held in Indianapolis on Saturday, December twelfth, the Model Resolution of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools setting forth the standards of athletic ethics and control was presented and adopted without a dissenting vote.

As secretary of the Conference I was requested to transmit this information to you, now secretary of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

Your very sincerely,  
WILLIAM M. BLANCHARD,  
Secretary-Treasurer of  
the Conference.

The Committee on Physical Education and Athletics recommends in accordance with our usual procedure that we recognize the Indiana Intercollegiate Conference.

The Kansas College Athletic Conference has filed an application for recognition by the North Central Association. This Conference comprises the following colleges:

Baker University  
Bethany College  
College of Emporia  
Kansas Wesleyan University  
McPherson College  
Ottawa University

The petition is signed by the faculty representatives of each of the institutions pledging cooperation and endorsing the athletic requirements set up by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

The Committee on Physical Education and Athletics recommends, in ac-

<sup>1</sup> A report made to the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education, April 11, 1935.—THE EDITOR.

cordance with our usual procedure, recognition of the Kansas College Athletic Conference.

During the past year the committee has conferred with a number of presidents and deans of colleges and with the heads of several departments of physical education and athletics concerning the conduct of athletics in their respective institutions. The committee has cooperated with a number of colleges and universities in connection with the scheduling of games with institutions which have not seen their way clear to cooperate with the North Central Association.

In the new accrediting procedure adopted by this Commission last year, the pattern map included a section under the title of "Athletics." In evaluating athletics in an institution, attention is given to the administration, the staff, recruiting, and finances. It is obvious that we did not include any new principles in this section and the Association expects a college holding membership in the Association or wishing to gain membership in the Association to maintain

the athletic program upon the same basis as other parts of the college program. Athletics were included in this pattern map largely on account of the well known abuses in the conduct of athletics in the past.

To eliminate these abuses is not a simple task. It will require our attention over a long period of time to change or modify public opinion. To do this effectively, those of us who cherish ideals in the conduct of athletics must set the example. This Association must continue to give careful attention to this development of our college activities and continue to cooperate with the conference and other interested parties to the end that we may make progress in the right direction.

It is recommended that the Committee on Physical Education and Athletics be continued.

Respectfully submitted,

B. L. STRADLEY, *Chairman*  
IRVING MAURER  
J. D. HILL  
C. E. FRILEY



*North central secondary school survey  
sec. data. sec. school. Committee on  
regional conferences*

## REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON REGIONAL CONFERENCES<sup>1</sup>

THE Committee on Regional Conferences appointed for the purpose of promoting the circulation and study of the findings of the National Survey of Secondary Education has pursued the same plan this year as outlined in the report made last year. It has re-emphasized the importance of using the monographs containing the results of the Survey as a basis for discussion in regional conferences and in secondary school faculty groups. Since all the monographs including number one, the summary volume, have been available for several months, the desirability of the purchase of the entire set from the Bureau of Education by secondary schools has been re-emphasized.

Several of the states have been successful in carrying out the plans of the committee. In Arizona, it is reported that a great majority of the secondary school principals are conversant with the monographs relative to teaching in the specific subject matter fields and that the principals possess individual sets of these volumes which have been made available to their teachers. During February of this year in Kansas, the National Survey was presented at the annual meeting of the Council of Administration, a gathering which is usually attended by six or seven hundred administrators and others interested in educational affairs.

In West Virginia, the monographs are being used by principals of many secondary schools as a basis for discussions in teachers' meetings. The Survey has been presented at two important meetings in

Ohio, and it is reported that many secondary schools have availed themselves of the monographs and are using them. The value of the monographs is well known to the secondary school people in North Dakota, since the Survey has been discussed in several meetings. The high school supervisors in Wisconsin during this year have made constant reference to the Survey in professional meetings. Moreover, the state chairman in Wisconsin indicates that it is one of their best supervisory materials at the present time.

One of the monographs was a basis for discussion at the delegate assembly of the Montana Education Association last December. Many of the Montana secondary schools have used the Survey material in faculty meetings. At the Principals' Conference in South Dakota last spring, there were two reports on the Survey. Also, considerable emphasis has been placed on the material of the Survey at the regular meeting of the South Dakota Education Association this year. During the 1934 summer session at the University of Wyoming, a course on the Survey was given. The editor of the New Mexico School Review in a recent issue laid special emphasis on the summary volume. Also, it is planned in New Mexico to use the monographs in faculty discussions during the year. The Survey was brought to the attention of the Department of Secondary School Principals of the Arkansas Education Association last November. Many schools in Colorado have the monographs in their professional libraries and are making use of them.

The state department and the state association in Nebraska have met with

<sup>1</sup> A report made to the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education, April 11, 1935—THE EDUCATOR.

significant success in publicizing the Survey. Dr. L. V. Koos addressed three of their larger meetings last fall. The state association in Nebraska has purchased sets of the monographs for the purpose of loaning them to teachers, concerning which an encouraging response is reported. In Michigan, a questionnaire regarding the use of the Survey was sent to the principals of the six hundred twenty accredited secondary schools. While the replies were not so encouraging, the fact that so much interest was shown at Ann Arbor is certain to get results. A very interesting report of the results of this questionnaire attempt to publicize the Survey was distributed throughout the state. This procedure is highly commendatory.

While the committee during the past three years has met with considerable encouragement in its attempts to give

currency to the findings of the Survey, it does not feel that the state committees in the North Central territory should discontinue their efforts in behalf of a more thorough understanding of the Survey findings among the secondary schools. We recommend that the North Central representatives as they visit schools urge the purchase of the complete sets for their professional libraries and that specific monographs bearing upon particular problems as they arise be designated for study. Also, the committee recommends that more attention be given to the Survey in summer courses in departments of education of higher institutions.

Committee:

E. A. SPAULDING

D. M. LOVE

W. W. HAGGARD, *Chairman*

## THE WORK OF THE AMERICAN COUNCIL<sup>1</sup>

HENRY M. WRISTON

*Lawrence College*

THIS year has seen a very marked change in the structure of the Council and in its personnel. The Council voted to reorganize its work and to include the whole realm of education in its function, not only collegiate education and secondary education, but primary education and pre-school education and out-of-school education, thus making the American Council what we have long needed, a focal center for the crystallization of educational thought in every line.

It does not propose to be an operative organization in all of these fields. It intends rather to be a clearing house, and its functions, as you probably know, through two main bodies: The Problems and Plans Committee, which is a board of major strategy; and the Executive Committee which carries out the plans of the Problems and Plans Committee, which finds the money and administers those funds.

At the same time this change was made in the function of the Council, there was a complete change in personnel. Dr. Charles R. Mann, for many years the director, became director emeritus, and Mr. McCracken, the associate director, resigned. A person long active in the affairs of the North Central became the new director, Dr. George F. Zook. He has selected as his associate director, Mr. Marsh, lately dean of the University of Buffalo, who will take office as soon as he can be relieved by the CCC group. This reorgani-

zation was voted in the spring, but Dr. Zook spent the summer in Europe and therefore the new organization did not get going until fall.

The work of the Council has, first of all, served the colleges, since this is a college program, with remarkable efficiency. It has represented the colleges in many of their contacts with the Federal Government. It was through the activities of a committee of the Council that the colleges were exempted from the NRA.

The Council has been extraordinarily active with reference to the FERA. Dr. Zook, as Commissioner of Education, was very close to Mr. Hopkins in drafting the original plans, and after he transferred his activities to the American Council has cooperated with Commissioner Studebaker and with Mr. Hopkins in carrying them forward.

The committee of this body, moreover, has been representing the colleges and universities in hearings before the Senate committee on the Economic Security Bill. I suppose all of you are aware that as that bill was drafted it would lay a heavy tax upon the payrolls of the colleges and universities which are not tax-supported. I can speak with some feeling on that, since the original bill was passed by the Wisconsin legislature and we are under the guaranteed employment plan in Wisconsin whether we like to be or not. It now seems possible, through the representation of this committee, that bill will be redrafted to an extent sufficient to exempt the independent and endowed colleges from that particular tax on their payrolls.

<sup>1</sup> This report was made before the general meeting of the Association at the time of its third session, Saturday morning, April 13, 1935.—THE EDITOR.



The committee of this organization has been extremely active in trying to mitigate the evils of the so-called freshman colleges. Neither the FERA itself, nor the American Council has any direct control over those emergency colleges. They are under the control of the several states. None the less, the Council has done what it could, by representation and otherwise, to see that this is held within bounds.

One of the most interesting things is the possible advisory service for college finance. The report of the Secretary of this Commission yesterday gave clear evidence of the necessity for this. Recent publication of the book on College and University Finance, by the cooperative committee, points it up, but there is real need for a continuous consulting service at some central office. That has been projected by the American Council, and request is in for funds to support it, and there seems to be some reason to at least hope that those funds will be forthcoming.

We are now projecting the revision of the volume of American Universities and Colleges, of which there have been two editions, one by Mr. Robertson, and one by Mr. McCracken, that has been extraordinarily serviceable but now needs to be revised.

Professor Brady of this committee has recently published a volume on Higher Education in the American State. That committee goes forward with its activities, and that is another volume in preparation.

There is a committee under the leadership of President Ferry, of Hamilton College, on Academic Costumes, and if she can wade through that American jungle she can serve us in clearing up the doubts of the browns and the pinks.

President Walters is chairman of the Committee on Standards. This committee does not envisage standards in the

North Central. It has abandoned them, but is trying to get definitions. Growing out of the work of this committee has come a dictionary of educational terms. I don't think "articulate" will be in there, or "integrate," but the actual usual terms of American education necessary for precise definition.

The Council has continued its work of administering the funds and cooperating with the cooperative test service, and with the American Council's psychological test. These two fundamental projects are of importance in the whole testing program in America.

The Council has been very active in its cooperation with the Advisory Council on Radio and Education, and working together they seem to be getting somewhere in that field in an educational sense.

One of the committees of the Council which is attacking a very fundamental problem is that on the Relation of the Emotions to the Educational Process, a very sadly neglected field, and one which the committee has not yet had funds or opportunity to explore as fully as needs to be done.

They are cooperative, moreover, in the restudy of secondary school standards, which was initiated by this Association and which is now being carried forward by a union of all the regional accrediting agencies, and it seems likely, if funds are granted, they will be cleared through the American Council on Education.

Recently the Council has projected the plan for an American Film Institute. The motion picture has been viewed by educators so largely as a commercial and amusement theatrical enterprise that we have been slow to recognize the educational possibilities and, on the other hand, the commercial producers of films have found the money so easy in the exploitation of things that are not

precisely educational that there has not been much effort to make educational films.

The educational organizations are facing the same problem that was faced some years ago with the radio, which likewise was a great force which was not being used for educational purposes.

There is today no single source of information about educational films, and most of you who are anxious to know something don't know where to find it. There is no adequate film service. It is not the intention of the American Film Institute to supply that service. It is to supply information about that service, to stimulate the production of good educational films and to carry the news back to the institutions as to where those films may be found.

There is no adequate projection system which is available in very many colleges, and the multiplicity of competing systems makes it very confusing for those who want to install them.

It is not the purpose of this institute, when founded, to become a censor. It will not have anything to do with commercial movies. It is not to be a producer. It is to be an educational agency, stimulating and guiding, publicizing and serving as a clearinghouse.

It is proposed that this should be chartered by a special act of Congress. That legislation is now being drafted and, shortly, a large conference will be held in Washington to complete the structure of this proposal and to seek funds to set it going.

One of the very important memoranda which has been drafted by the Council is one on the development of human resources through education. This memorandum is to the National Resources Board, and lays great emphasis upon the necessity, when considering the conservation of natural resources, for viewing our human resources as the most

significant of those national resources. It lays great emphasis upon the fact that culture begets culture, and if a family can be brought to a higher level of life it will produce results to the third and fourth generation. It is not merely the saving of resources through their multiplication when you deal with human resources, whereas, on the other hand, the phrase used in this memorandum is: "A lost generation can never be salvaged or replaced." It is lost irreparably, and that loss goes on through the years to their children's children.

The memorandum calls for an expenditure of two million and a half in the first year of study on this broad topic of the development of human resources, and it falls into three groups. The first will be an inventory of human resources in need of development. I can't take the time of this body to outline those fully, but there are needs for development of our most brilliant students, and the memorandum points out that vastly more money is spent upon people of low capacity than on people of high capacity, that we make much more adequate provision for the delinquents, the criminals, and the deficient than we do for the unusually gifted. It calls attention, moreover, to the fact that there are many people who have slight difficulties which may be overcome, but who are not now getting the kind of training which will make them most efficient citizens. So that the first group study that is proposed is an inventory of human resources in need of development.

A second aspect will be experiments in developing better methods of developing these human resources. It is proposed to coordinate the work of universities, colleges, schools, and of government bureaus and states in an effort to develop an experimental plan which will cover a wide range of activities along that line.

Third, the study will go into what

kind of administrative organization can best stimulate this development of human resources.

Finally, I must speak of this memorandum on the proposed youth program, which is a proposal for the development of a comprehensive program for the care and education of American youth. The American Council, ever since its reorganization, has been very active in this field. It stimulated and worked for the division of youth service in the Office of Education. The Federal Government didn't have funds enough to do it, and a grant of \$10,000 was secured to set up that service, and recently a new grant of \$20,000 has been secured to carry it forward.

The American Council has been, from the beginning, very active in cooperation with the Civilian Conservation Corps. It secured a grant of \$40,000 from the General Education Board for the publication of pamphlets, and you are all familiar with the famous experience of Professor Ogburn's booklet on Youth and Machines—Ogburn and Fechtner. That difficulty has not yet been completely ironed out, but there is some reason to believe that progress is being made and that the work of the American Council in aiding the Civilian Conservation Corps will go forward fruitfully in the future.

They are drafting a comprehensive project for the group of boys and girls from twelve to twenty, and this program is to be carried on over a period of five or six years. Its overhead budget will be \$100,000 a year for administrative purposes, and then special grants will be secured for carrying on the specific items of its program.

Very few of us realize that there are three million boys and girls from fifteen to eighteen not employed and not in high school or in college, many of whom have gifts. And those who have not the

gifts for college work need training in other aspects of their work. I can give you only the barest outline of the proposed scope of this, which falls into four items.

First, a comprehensive analysis of the characteristics of youth and an evaluation of influences to which they are subject.

Stated in those bald terms, it seems somewhat grandiloquent, but if I had time to go through the details of the memorandum you would see it is a precise and coherent idea.

Second, a continuous study of the commonly accepted goals and the care and education of American youth for the purpose of determining the adequacy of these goals in relation to present social, economic and political trends. This is not an attack upon the schools. It is to be a study as to whether the schools are performing all the service they may perform, and if there are important services which they cannot perform to find what agencies may best carry those functions forward.

Third, the investigation of agencies concerned with the care and education, and the eventual recommendation of procedures which seem to influence young people most effectively.

Finally, the systematic popularization and promotion of desirable plans of action through conferences, publications, demonstrations of promising procedures.

I think it is clear, from this mere catalog of some of the activities of the Council which I have given you, that it has become an extremely vital body, and that in these particularly difficult times it is assuming a post of leadership and, like this organization, is a great cooperative group and is bringing the resources of the whole educational energy of America to bear on some of these significant problems.



REPORT OF THE MEETING OF THE AMERICAN COUNCIL  
ON EDUCATION

GEO. A. WORKS  
*University of Chicago*

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THE American Council on Education needs no introduction to the North Central Association. Largely due to the active interest of Dr. C. H. Judd in both organizations over a period of several years the bond between them has been a close one. Dr. Judd, as one of the official delegates to the Council and as a member of the influential Problems and Plans Committee of the Council, has been in position to bring back to our annual meetings informative and stimulating reports of the plans and policies of the Council. The bond should now be strengthened not only because Dr. Zook, who has worked hard and intelligently in behalf of this Association, has become President of the Council; but changes that have been made and plans in progress for others on the part of the Council point in directions in which the Association should be interested.

It will be recalled that a year ago the American Council on Education broadened the scope of its membership so as to include agencies and organizations interested in elementary and secondary education. By this change the Council announced an interest in the entire field of education beginning with the elementary school and running through the university. This change in policy was reflected in the program at the annual meeting held May 3 and 4. Place was made in the program for other phases of education than higher education. This change aroused a fear, that was voiced in the meeting, lest the Council should neglect higher education. Dr. Zook in his

first annual report as Director<sup>1</sup> made reply to this view in the following words:

There has naturally been some apprehension that, in view of the more comprehensive interests of the Council from this time on, its emphasis in the field of higher education would be lessened thereby. I feel sure that this will not be the case. Dean Marsh of the University of Buffalo, who directed the educational program in the Civilian Conservation Corps with conspicuous success, has just assumed his duties as Associate Director in the field of higher education. A large number of the projects and studies now under way in the Council are in the field of higher education. It is hoped that we may soon be able to establish a financial advisory service primarily for the colleges and universities. Indeed it seems clear to me that the Council should be able to render far greater service to the higher institutions than ever before.

The membership of the Council is of three classes:

1. Constituent members, consisting of the important national and regional associations.
2. Associate members, organizations having work that is related to the work of the Council; e.g., American Alumni Council.
3. Institutional members.

The last group is numerically the most important as it constitutes 83 per cent of the total membership. The finances of the Council are in such condition that the Executive Committee reduced the annual dues of this class of members from \$100 to \$50 effective immediately. The prospects for the usefulness of the Council are so good that your delegate cannot refrain from urging members of the Association that are not

<sup>1</sup> Title was changed from Director to President at the last annual meeting.

members of the Council to join. The Council needs your influence and support even more than your financial aid in the large problems it is carrying forward in behalf of American education.

One of the most important events of the meeting was the announcement by Dr. Zook that the General Education Board had made available funds so that the Council could set up a commission to begin a study on "the care and education of young people from the time they acquire the elementary tools of knowledge, . . . down to the time . . . when . . . they are settled in a vocation and perhaps in their own homes."

The scope of this study is briefly stated in the following paragraph from Dr. Zook's report as Director.

Is it not clear that America must face a series of readjustments before this problem with its manifold aspects can be solved? To a considerable extent it is a problem for the school but not exclusively. If all young people are to remain in the school for a longer period then the schools must find far better ways of analyzing the special abilities and interests of their students. But they must cooperate with industry, agriculture and the home in setting up work experiences that are real and educative. Young people must also be given the utmost opportunity to come into practical contact with the institutions and problems of local, state and national government. Learning by doing is as necessary in the practice of democratic government as it is in the practice of a profession or a vocation. The need for building up more intimate relationships between the school and wholesome recreation activities is equally obvious. In other words, the youth problem is a problem of proper care as well as of education. Unemployment, crime and inadequate educational provisions all testify to the need for a comprehensive inquiry into and the earliest possible remedies for the youth problem.

It is expected that the commission will be selected in early summer and that the staff will be ready to begin its work by the first of September.

Another development with which the Council has been identified is the organization of the National Committee consisting of representatives from the

several regional accrediting associations to devise more adequate bases for the accrediting of secondary schools. Through the Council, the General Education Board has made available \$25,000 for the use of the National Committee, and the work of this committee will be well under way by the time of the opening of the academic year. This venture, like the "youth" study, is of interest to those in higher education as well as those engaged in secondary education.

The Handbook of Universities and Colleges, editions of which were issued in 1928 and 1932, and which proved so useful, will be revised and brought up to date. At the time of the annual meeting of the Council, work had already been started on the new edition, to be available during the next few months.

The activity of the Council in the field of testing has been conspicuous for several years. The psychological test for colleges and universities was first used in 1924. Its use has grown to the point where its sale is larger than that of any other similar test. A psychological test for use at the high-school level has now been developed, and in the future the new forms of the college test will not be available for use in high schools.

The Cooperative Test Service was given an appropriation of \$500,000 for a ten-year period. Several forms of the tests have been developed for each of the major subjects in the five years that have elapsed since the grant was made. In the near future it will be necessary for the Council to make some decision regarding the character of the future service it will attempt in this field.

In addition to the above enterprises, the Council is sponsoring other ventures that are designed to contribute to the improvement of education. The attendance at the sessions and discussions indicated a genuine interest in the program of the Council and point toward even greater usefulness for the organization.

*Curriculum - High schools*  
*Curriculum - Illinois*  
*xx Education - Illinois*

✓ A CRITICAL STUDY OF CURRICULUM OFFERINGS<sup>1</sup> ✓

J. A. CLEMENT and A. W. CLEVENGER<sup>2</sup>

*University of Illinois*

NO PROBLEM in the secondary schools of the United States at the present time is more in need of continual study than the nature and the organization of curriculum offerings. The need for a study of this problem has been in the foreground of American secondary education during the past three hundred years of its history. But it came clearly to the fore when the upward and downward extension movement in secondary education began in terms of the establishment of junior high schools and junior colleges throughout our country. During the last half-decade the whole problem has been brought to a sharp focus.

One of the purposes or occasions for undertaking the present study was to ascertain the status, so far as possible, of the offerings in the accredited high schools of Illinois. It is a well-known fact that the enrollment in these schools, as well as in other states, has been increasing at a phenomenal rate during the

last few decades. It is equally well-known that the avowed generic or major purposes of secondary education in Illinois, as well as in other states, have broadened during recent years. It may also be assumed that the emergency financial situation in which we at present find ourselves, calls for some immediate revaluation of our curriculum offerings. In the light of these three factors, namely, increased enrollments, broadened purposes of secondary education, and the present emergency financial situation, it may well be asked, What reorganization of curriculum offerings, if any, has been going on? In the present study, an attempt has been made, therefore, to get a cross section picture of the actual offerings in more than five hundred of the accredited secondary schools of Illinois outside Chicago.

THE PROCEDURE AND SOURCES OF DATA

Accrediting blanks which have been filled out by high school administrators from year to year are on file in the High School Visitor's Office of the University of Illinois. Those items on the blanks which pertained to curricula furnished the data used in this inventory. Four items have been considered, namely: the administrative unit values of respective subjects; the total range of offerings in the different secondary school subject fields; the offerings during the first, second, third, and fourth years of the secondary school; and the practices with reference to prescribed subjects. The two items pertaining to

<sup>1</sup> The full title of this paper as written is "A Critical Study of Curriculum Offerings in Over 550 Accredited High Schools in Illinois outside Chicago for the Years 1932-33, 1933-34, and 1934-35." The paper was read before the Commission on Unit Courses and Curricula, April 11, 1935.—THE EDITOR.

<sup>2</sup> The following graduate students in the University of Illinois cooperated in making the present study: Santiago Apany, L. P. Bradford, L. J. Baker, C. C. Barlow, E. W. Best, O. R. Blomquist, R. P. Borri, Frank, Carek, J. F. Current, E. E. Field, F. C. Hill, J. M. Gerber, H. E. Maurer, L. E. Mecay, Carl Lutman, Stuart Moll, E. W. Pride, Newton Stone, Robert Trask, Edith Van Sickle, L. E. Wattles, Frank Willis, and L. A. Wright, under the direction of Professor J. A. Clement, University of Illinois, and A. W. Clevenger, High School Visitor, University of Illinois, assisted by Messrs. Davies, Iske, and Kann.



the administrative unit values and the range of offerings have been accorded the largest attention in this discussion due to the fact that the information concerning them was more reliably given and was more readily interpretable. The detailed findings, and summarization of these items, will be found in the tabulations that follow, accompanied by explanations and interpretations of the same.

The schools involved in this study were divided into five groups according to size or according to the number of pupils enrolled. This was done in order to make generalizations separately in case of the large, medium-sized, and small schools. In group I, over two hundred schools are included, and likewise over two hundred in group II. This means that over four hundred schools having enrollments of 250 pupils or below are considered in this part of the study. Over eighty schools are included under group III, representing enrollments of 251 to 500; over 35, under group IV, having enrollments from 501 to 1000; and over 30, under group V, have enrollments of 1001 and over.

The accompanying table,<sup>1</sup> as will be seen, shows the administrative unit values of subjects offered and the range of offerings in the different-sized schools. One merit of the first part of this study is worthy of mention at this juncture. It covers a three-year interval of time. On the other hand, a limitation of the study should also be noted. It is impossible to discover from the mere listing of the high school subjects given on this blank exactly what is the nature or kind of the content of subject matter taught under the respective subject fields and corresponding subjects.

<sup>1</sup> The elaborate table giving the data of this study in detail was found to be too lengthy to incorporate in this article. The discussions which follow do, however, bring out the facts clearly.—  
THE EDITOR.

#### EXPLANATION OF THE FACTUAL CONDITIONS

As previously stated, tabulations for this study were made for four items found on the accrediting blanks filled out annually by secondary school administrators. These items are (1) the administrative unit values, (2) the range of offerings, (3) years in which offered, and (4) prescribed work. Some explanation and interpretation accompanies the tabulations.

Column one in the table represents the names of the different subjects offered; column two, the unit values of subjects administratively considered, and the third sub-divided column, the percentage of divisional subject offerings in the different-sized groups of secondary schools.

*English.* One hundred per cent of the high schools in group I (which represents schools that have enrollments of one hundred pupils or fewer) offer four years of English. This is likewise true of the two groups of high schools that have enrollments of from 101 to 250, and from 251 to 500 pupils. In case of groups IV and V (those having enrollments of over 500 and 1000 respectively) one hundred per cent of the schools offer English I and II. A little variation occurs in case of English III and IV in these two larger groups of schools. There are two possible explanations of this variation. Namely, that either complete information was not furnished, or else that English may be offered in the fourth year, and some substitute for the usual English IV may be given in the other few instances.

With the exception of Public Speaking I, comparatively little regularity is found in the remaining offerings in high school English. Even in the case of public speaking the schools with enrollments of 250 pupils and fewer have a meager

offering. However, during 1934-35, over 25 per cent of the schools with enrollments of 250 to 1000 offer this subject as such, as did also over 50 per cent of the schools with enrollments above 1000 pupils. Of course, it is probably true that in many instances public speaking does not appear separately because it has been made a part of the regular English course.

Such divisional aspects as debate, dramatics, news writing, business English, creative writing, and journalism appear to only a very small degree, in the schools with enrollments of 250 and below. These divisional phases of English appear in somewhat small proportions even in the schools having enrollments of from 250 to 1000. In the largest group of schools having enrollments of 1000 and over public speaking, for example, is offered in 20 per cent of the schools and public speaking II in a little less than 15 per cent. In 1934-35 dramatics was offered in over 20 per cent of these large schools. English I, II, III, IV are regularly offered for one-year unit of credit. On the other hand, practically all of the other divisional aspects of English in all-sized schools are offered for one-half unit of credit.

Granting the fundamental place of English in the training of the high school pupil, one may, however, raise the question whether merely an announcement of a one hundred per cent offering of English I, II, III, and IV furnishes the complete picture. As a point of departure for an initial discussion, the writer asserts that this picture is far from complete. For there is no way of knowing, for example, from these data alone what proportion of the four years' work is constituted of the merely traditional type. There is no way of knowing how much unnecessary tread-milling and duplication is going on. There is no way of knowing whether both English III

and IV, to say nothing of English I and II, have been enriched to such a degree that pupils not only master fundamentals but also have been led to have an increasing desire to master such subject matter. Our very complacency with our English offerings in terms of merely vague denotations such as English I, II, III, and IV has become one of our unending weaknesses.

*Foreign Languages.* In one respect, the foreign language situation, as shown in the table, indicates no irregularity. For, whenever Latin or German or French or Spanish is offered in any of the schools of the four-sized groups in question they appear uniformly for one unit of credit. Taking all of the schools involved into account, Latin is by far the most widely represented among the foreign language offerings. Approximately from 90 to 100 per cent of all of the schools offer Latin I and II. And in case of a number of the larger schools fully 100 per cent offer both Latin I and II. Much above 50 per cent of the larger schools offered Latin III during 1934-35.

German III is offered very little in the schools except in those having 1000 enrollments or over, and then to the extent of about 25 per cent of the schools. On the other hand, German I and II were offered in from one-fifth to one-half of the schools having enrollments of 500 and above, during 1934-35. Next to Latin, French is the most widely offered foreign language. It is widely represented in all-sized groups of schools. In the schools of 100 enrollments and fewer, a little less than 10 per cent offer both French I and II, and in the schools of from 101 to 250 over one-fifth offer it. Then in the schools with enrollments of 250 and over, much over 50 per cent offer two years. Spanish I and II are offered in a comparatively small number of the smaller schools of 250 enrollments

and under. In the two larger groups of schools, the frequency of offerings increases in a range of from 25 to 80 per cent or more of the schools.

Certain reasons, of course, can be given for the practice of offering Latin in the schools with a greater frequency than in case of any of the other foreign languages. Also, certain reasons can be given accounting for the variation of the offerings of the other foreign languages from time to time. Certain pertinent queries arise in one's mind when observing the foreign language tabulations. For example, why should any one foreign language continue to be represented so much more widely than any other one in the high school offerings? Are we not far enough along in our educational thinking to grant that at least several of the foreign languages ought to be offered with equal frequency, especially in case of high schools having enrollments of 250 or over, to say nothing of the schools having enrollments below this number? The same query may be raised here which was raised in the case of English, namely, how far does the cataloging of the foreign languages under such captions as I, II, III, IV connote or portray in any way the desirable kind of content that is actually offered? Briefly, the answer is, not at all.

*History and Other Social Studies.* In case of no subject-field perhaps have we shouted "Eureka" more often during the last decade than in the instance of history and the other social studies. A momentary glance at the array of divisional aspects offered in the secondary schools of Illinois ought at once to suggest numerous problems in this field. In these offerings are found a predominant number which are given one-half unit of credit. The same divisional aspect receives one-half unit of credit in some schools, and one unit in others.

The range of offerings in history and the other social studies is very wide. Evidence of this statement is to be found in the listings on the official accrediting blanks of the following divisional phases: ancient history, general history, modern history, world history, English history, United States history, medieval and modern history, ancient and medieval history, elementary and advanced civics, economics, and sociology. Ancient history is offered in approximately 50 per cent of the schools. World history is offered in about 25 per cent of the schools of 250 pupils and under, and in about 35 to 45 per cent or more in the schools above 250 pupils. English history as well as general history are offered in a comparatively small number of schools. Ancient and medieval history appears in about one-fifth of the schools having 250 pupils or under, and in approximately one-sixth of the schools with the larger enrollments. As one would surmise, since it is almost universally required, United States history is offered in practically all of the Schools. Medieval and modern history ranks next to United States history in the frequency of offering in all-sized schools.

The social studies other than history, on the whole, are also widely represented. The number of divisional aspects receiving one-half and one unit of credit, respectively, are about equal. A little over one-third of the two smaller groups of schools offer elementary civics, and two-fifths and above of the larger schools. Advanced civics is offered in even a larger percentage of schools. Economics appears in 90 per cent or more of all-sized schools in Illinois. Sociology appears in from 10 to 15 per cent of the smaller schools and in about from 20 to 40 per cent of the larger schools.

With the spread of these divisional aspects in mind, one is inclined to raise numerous questions. Does this multipli-



city of offerings represent too much chaos? Does it represent wasteful duplication? Does it represent enrichment of desirable content? Does it represent a composite of two or more of the above features? Suppose, for example, upon walking into a school where a world history course, a modern history course, and a United States history course are being taught by different teachers, simultaneously, one should find that the Spanish-American War had been discussed in practically the same content, what would be one's reaction? Incidentally, this sort of practice was encountered when visiting a school. Granting that in the smaller schools, and sometimes in the larger ones, not all of this dozen or more divisional aspects would likely be offered, still is it not pertinent to ask whether this multiplicity of aspects offered has often led to undue duplication or confusion?

Now that differentiation of history and other social studies has found widespread expression, is there not need for precaution lest synthesization will not accompany this differentiation? Have we yet found the best plan for synthesizing the content of all of these divisional aspects? It may be that continuously reconstructing our now reconstructed courses is the constant challenge in Illinois high schools that ought to face us. Will it not be necessary to try to determine continually what are the fundamental ideas and concepts that are common among many, if not among all, of these now recognized divisional aspects, and then attempt to organize them in the most profitable way educationally considered?

*Science.* Perhaps the outstanding debate in the field of science with reference to offerings during the last decade or more has centered around general science and the biological sciences. From 70 to 75 per cent of the schools in the

two smaller groups offer general science, usually for one unit of credit. In the group of schools with enrollments over 250 pupils it is offered on the whole with about equal frequency. The issue as to whether biology should be offered or whether botany and zoology should be given separately has been prominent in the state of Illinois for some years past. It will be noted that biology for one unit of credit is offered with the exception of the year 1934-35, under Group I, in from 65 to 75 per cent of the schools, and in from 60 to 75 per cent of the three larger groups of schools. When the botany and zoology courses are offered separately they occur with about equal frequency. Among the physical sciences, physics is the most universally offered, in most of the groups of schools being 90 per cent or above. Chemistry, in the schools above 250 pupils, represents also a percentage of offerings of 85 and over. Physical geography appears in over one-third of the schools of the larger three groups.

From the data here furnished, of course, there is no way of knowing what proportionate emphasis, if any, is still given to the one-time classificatory type of biological content. Or stated in general, no knowledge of the varying nature of subject matter offered in the schools, or of the aspects common among them in the fields of biological and physical sciences respectively, can be detected. In order to discover this it will be necessary for schools to publish courses of study.

*Mathematics.* In the field of mathematics, supposedly more uniformity has occurred than in case of some of the other academic subjects. In the majority of the different sized groups of schools algebra I and plane geometry are offered with a one hundred per cent frequency. Incomplete data reported on the blanks account for probably all of

the variations found in the table. Solid geometry is offered in from 60 to 80 per cent of the schools having enrollments of below 250 pupils, and in over 90 per cent of the schools having enrollments of 250 pupils or above. Trigonometry is offered in about one-fourth of the schools represented in group III and in from 55 to 65 per cent of the schools having enrollments of 500 pupils or more. Commercial arithmetic is widely offered in the larger three groups of schools. From 30 to 40 per cent of the schools having enrollments of over 1000 pupils offer general mathematics.

How much variation occurs in the nature of the content offered or in the relative emphasis placed upon different aspects taught, in the case of algebra I or of plane geometry, cannot be detected from these tabulations alone. This matter, however, would seem to be worthy of some consideration. The representatives of the national mathematics council have, of course, made some recommendations in the past on this matter. It would seem to be worth while, for example, to raise the question whether the mathematics offered to ninth grade pupils, who do not plan to go on to college and for those who do plan to go on should differ in any way. So far, it appears, we have not met squarely enough the issue of the reformation of ninth grade mathematics, whether in connection with the junior or senior high school.

*Agriculture.* Interestingly enough, the offering in animal husbandry is scattered throughout all of the different-sized groups of high schools, being offered in most of the groups with a range of 25 to 45 per cent. Farm mechanics, farm management, and soils and crops are also offered throughout the five groups of schools and for one unit of credit. The majority of the schools, in case of soils and crops, represent a range of 30

to 45 per cent. The total variety of courses offered in the smaller is larger than in case of the two largest groups. One may justifiably raise the question whether this is perhaps too wide a spread (in case of the small high schools) to produce the greatest efficiency.

*Home Economics.* Under the subject field of home economics clothing I, in the majority of the schools having enrollments of 250 or below, have offerings from 50 to 70 per cent, whereas in the schools having more than 250 pupils the percentage ranges from 80 to 82 or above. Clothing II is offered in a larger percentage of the schools having enrollments below 250 than in case of the schools having enrollments above this number. This is probably accounted for, in part, by the fact that the total range of offerings in the smaller schools is less than in the larger schools. Foods I and II scarcely appear in the schools with enrollments under 250 pupils. Foods I, in the three larger groups, is offered with a range of 75 to 85 per cent in the schools. Home management is offered in from 25 to 45 per cent of the larger groups of schools. Without a knowledge of the nature of the content of the textbooks or of other sources used in these courses it is not possible to know what kinds of subject matter are offered in the different courses in the different schools. Nor is it possible to determine whether useless duplication of materials occurs within the different divisional aspects offered.

*Industrial Arts.* Industrial arts I is offered in from 20 to 35 per cent of the schools having enrollments of 250 or below and in from 65 to 85 per cent of the schools with enrollments above 250 pupils. Industrial arts II is offered widely, also, but in a larger percentage of the schools of groups III, IV and V. Mechanical drawing and art and design

represent the other divisional subjects most frequently offered.

One of the most troublesome problems arises, in the field of industrial arts, with reference to the terminology employed to designate the actual offerings. There is no way of knowing exactly what is the nature of the content in the different schools for example, under the label of industrial arts. Furthermore, in some instances the phrase manual training is still employed. This causes some confusion in case of some of the other captions used for divisional aspects under industrial arts.

*Commerce.* Under the field of commercial subjects, eleven out of sixteen of the divisional courses are offered for one unit of credit and the remainder for one-half unit of credit. Bookkeeping I is offered in from 60 to over 85 per cent of the schools with enrollments of 250 and below, and in 90 to 100 per cent of the schools of the three large groups. Shorthand and typing are widely offered in both the smaller and larger schools. Commercial law is offered in more than one-third of the schools of groups I and II, and in from 60 to 80 per cent of the three larger groups. Commercial geography is offered in from 40 to 50 per cent of the schools with enrollments below 250 pupils, and in from 55 to 85 per cent in the schools with enrollments above 250 pupils.

What constitutes the aspects that are offered and taught in the different commercial courses (for example in commercial geography, commercial law, and business training) cannot be determined alone from the tabulations made. It is important to know what aspects are emphasized. Moreover, it is not possible to determine the difference, if any, between the courses listed as shorthand and typing in contrast to those that are labelled typing. Whether the smaller schools are attempting to offer too wide

a range of commercial offerings in comparison with the larger schools is a problem that one is inclined to raise upon the tabulations.

*Music.* On the whole, the schools of the larger three groups have a higher percentage of offerings in the divisional aspects of music than have the smaller two groups. About half of the range of offerings are either given for one unit, or else for one-half unit of credit. Harmony I is offered in from 3 to 5 per cent of the schools having enrollments of 250 and below, and in from 10 to 50 per cent of the schools with enrollments above 250 pupils. History of music is offered for some credit in all-sized schools. In the three larger groups of schools, from 10 to 20 per cent offer history of music. Appreciation appears in all of the different-sized groups of schools. It appears in approximately two per cent of the smaller schools and in from 10 to 35 per cent of the larger three groups. Band, orchestra, and glee club appear in over one-fourth of the schools of 100 pupils or fewer. In groups III and V, they are offered in from 60 to 90 per cent of the schools. Certain omissions of data on the accrediting blanks account for certain omissions in these tabulations.

It is not clear from these tabulations as to how the content varies from the earlier type offered except through the names given to the divisional aspects. One may justifiably raise the question as to whether the offerings in music are as frequent as they ought to be both in case of the smaller as well as in the case of the larger schools. The answer, in brief, is that the offerings are still too meager.

#### PRESCRIBED SUBJECTS

The majority of the high schools of Illinois prescribe four years of English. In the high schools having 250 enroll-



ments and below, between 90 and 95 per cent prescribe fourth year English, but in the schools having enrollments above 250 the percentage of schools which prescribe fourth year English varies. For example, during 1934-35, 80 per cent of the schools under group III, 65 per cent of the schools under group IV, and 53 per cent of the schools under Group V prescribed fourth year English.

In case of foreign languages, the only prescriptions of any consequence occurred in the field of Latin I and II in the two groups of schools having 250 pupils and below. And even in these instances it was group I, representing the 200 or more schools with enrollments of 100 pupils and below, which contained much the largest percentage of prescriptions for the year 1932-33, 1933-34, and 1934-35. The percentages for these respective years in case of Latin I were 23.5, 19.3 and 17.7. This means that approximately one-fifth of the smaller schools prescribed Latin I and II. The prescriptions in French, German, and Spanish were practically negligible.

In the field of history and other social studies, naturally, U.S. history represented the highest percentage of prescribed work in the different-sized groups of schools, being about 90 per cent or above in each of the five-sized groups of schools during 1934-35. Prescribed work in ancient history varies in the smaller schools from 10 to 25 per cent. World history is prescribed in over 6 per cent of the small schools, and in from 12 to 15 per cent in the large schools of the two upper-sized groups. Medieval and modern history and ancient and medieval history are prescribed more largely in the schools with enrollments of 100 pupils and below than in case of the larger schools. Elementary and advanced civics combined were prescribed in over one-third of the schools during

1934-35. During the same year economics was prescribed in about 10 per cent of the two smaller groups of schools, and over 12 per cent in the three larger sized groups of schools.

General science was prescribed in 70 to 75 per cent of the schools with enrollments of 100 and below, during 1932-33, 1933-34 and 1934-35. The percentage for the same years was somewhat smaller in the schools having from 101 to 250 enrolled. In case of the schools having enrollments above 250 the percentage of prescription varied from 25 to 40 per cent or over.

Physiology, biology, physics, and (to some small degree) chemistry are frequently prescribed. From 15 to 20 per cent of the schools under 100 enrollments and from 10 to 12 per cent of the schools with enrollments from 101 to 250 prescribed biology, but the larger schools do this to a lesser degree. Physics is prescribed in about one-third of the schools having enrollments of 100 or fewer, and in a much smaller degree in all of the rest of the schools. Chemistry is prescribed to a comparatively small degree. Physiology as such is prescribed in from 15 to 20 per cent of the smaller schools having 100 pupils or fewer enrolled, and in a larger degree in the larger schools.

In the field of mathematics from 90 to 95 schools or more prescribe algebra I in the schools having enrollments of 100 pupils or fewer; from 80 to 85 per cent in the schools having 101 to 250 pupils; in 50 to 75 per cent in the schools having enrollments of 251 to 500; and a range of 25 to 50 per cent in the two largest groups of schools. The practice in the prescribed work for plane geometry is quite similar to that of algebra.

The prescriptions in the remaining subject fields offered in the high schools are quite scattered and comparatively

meager. These include the practical arts, music and fine arts.

From tabulations made relative to prescribed subjects, the generalization may be made that the ranges of subjects included most largely are English I, II, III, and IV; Latin I and II; United States history, medieval and modern history, ancient history, world history, elementary and advanced civics, and economics; general science, physiology, biology, physics, algebra and geometry.

#### YEARS IN WHICH SUBJECTS ARE FIRST OFFERED

Tabulations in connection with this study were also made with reference to the different years of the high school (freshman, sophomore, junior and senior) during which different subjects were offered. Lack of space prevents the inclusion of this table in this article. Naturally, what have been designated English I, II, III, and IV are offered in consecutive order in the high school, with the exception that if only three years of English are required English III may appear in the senior rather than in the junior year. This is true of all of the five-sized groups of schools. Public speaking I was found to be offered in each of the four years of the high school. In the schools having enrollments of over 500 the tendency is to offer it initially after the freshman year.

The comments that follow relative to the years in which subjects are offered apply chiefly to the year 1934-35. Naturally English I and II were uniformly offered during the freshman and sophomore years. Whenever but three years of English are required, English III is frequently offered in the junior or else the senior year. Public speaking I was found to be offered in each of the four years of the high school, but the tendency in the schools having enrollments of 500 pupils or more is to offer it after

the freshman year. This is true of about one-fifth to one-sixth of the schools having enrollments above 1000 pupils.

Latin I was found to be offered in 65 per cent of the schools having enrollments of 100 or below during the freshman year, over 25 per cent in the sophomore year, and in less than 10 per cent in the junior year. In the schools with enrollments of 101 to 250 pupils, 82 per cent offered it in the freshman year, almost 19 per cent in the sophomore year, and less than 10 per cent in the junior year. In the schools with enrollments of 251 to 500, 96 per cent offer it in the freshman year, and less than 5 per cent in the sophomore year. In the schools of 501 to 1000 enrollments, 100 per cent offered it in the Freshman year. 501 to 1000 enrollments 100 per cent offered it in the freshman year. French I is offered throughout all of the different-sized groups of schools in the ninth, tenth, and eleventh grades, as is also true of German I. However, in the smaller schools these modern languages are offered to a much smaller degree in the freshman year than is true in case of Latin. In the schools of 250 pupils and fewer about 3 or 4 per cent offer French I in the freshman year; in the schools of 251 to 500 pupils, over 10 per cent; and in the schools of 500 pupils or more from 40 to 50 per cent. The tendency in the larger schools is to offer beginning modern language courses in each of the ninth, tenth, and eleventh grades, but (in the case of Latin) to restrict the offering in beginning Latin primarily to the ninth grade.

In the case of mathematics, a somewhat reverse situation occurs. For example, Algebra I in from 95 to 99 per cent of the schools having enrollments of 1000 pupils or fewer is offered only in the ninth grade. Plane geometry follows during the sophomore year in much the same proportions. On the other hand,

commercial arithmetic is offered to some extent in each of the four years in high school. On the whole, the tendency is to offer it in the tenth and eleventh grades in all of the high schools involved in this study.

In the field of history and the other social studies, ancient history is offered in the ninth grade in one-fourth of the schools with enrollments of one hundred and below and with about the same frequency in all of the other four-sized groups. World history is offered in the ninth and tenth and eleventh grades, but with the highest percentage in the tenth grade. United States history is offered widely in both the eleventh and twelfth grades, predominantly in the twelfth grade in the schools having enrollments of 250 pupils and below. In the larger three groups of schools, it occurs in from one-fourth to one-third of the instances in the junior year. Elementary civics is offered in all four years of the high school, but in from one-fourth to one-third of the instances in the ninth grade. Economics is offered in each of the tenth, eleventh and twelfth grades. Even the so-called advanced civics appears frequently in all of the four years. However, it is predominantly given in the two upper years of the high school, and, in the case of the schools having enrollments of 500 or above, with about an equal percentage of frequency in the eleventh and twelfth grades.

In the field of science, general science appears most frequently in the ninth grade, being as high as 80 per cent in the schools of 100 pupils and below. Physiology also appears in all of the four years of the high school, with the largest percentage of offerings again occurring in the ninth grade. Biology is offered during all four years, with the largest percentage of the offerings appearing in the sophomore year, with

about one-sixth of the schools of 250 and below offering it in the junior year. Physics and chemistry are offered in both the junior and senior years in all-sized schools. In the schools of 250 pupils and below, over one-third offer physics in the junior year, and in the three larger groups the percentage varies from over 50 to 75 and above. Physical geography is offered in all four years of the high school, predominantly occurring in the ninth grade.

In the field of commercial work, commercial geography appears in all four years with a high frequency in the ninth, tenth and eleventh grades. In the schools of 250 pupils and over about one-fourth offer it in the freshman year. Likewise commercial law appears in each of the four years of work, although predominantly it appears in the upper two years of the high school.

In the field of agriculture, animal husbandry appears in all four years of the high school, but predominantly in the ninth and tenth grades. This is likewise true of soils and crops.

In the field of practical arts for boys and girls, industrial arts I appears in all four grades of the high school, being predominantly offered in the ninth grade. Under household arts the courses in foods and in nutrition I and in clothing and textiles I also appear in each of the four years of work, with the largest percentage of offerings occurring during the freshman and sophomore years.

#### GENERALIZATIONS AND EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

It is impossible to give a complete list of generalizations and educational implications growing out of this study. Some of these were suggested earlier within the body of this discussion. A representative list of fourteen is given here.

1. Designations of courses offered



under such labelings as I, II, III, IV give little idea of what the kind of content is that is taught.

2. From the manner in which they are usually labeled, it is difficult to detect what constitutes enriched subject matter in the different courses and what does not. Supplementary outlines and syllabi are now available only in too limited a number of schools.

3. It is often impossible to determine at what points useless treadmilling of materials of construction occurs.

4. In most of the schools Latin is given a larger "right of way" than is true in the case of the modern languages. The query persistently arises, Why should not several of the foreign languages be offered more widely and simultaneously, especially in the medium-sized and larger schools, rather than predominantly any one foreign language?

5. The differentiated multiplicity of courses offered should be carefully guarded lest confusion result in the field of history and the other social studies. Synthesization of basic concepts and ideas should accompany this increased array of courses in order to avoid useless duplication of materials. This precaution is especially important during the first two years of the four-year high school.

6. How far is the proportionate emphasis now given to the newer type of organization in biological science satisfactory in contrast to the early classificatory procedure? Should not further study be given also to the relative merits as well as possible limitations of offering general biology in place of botany and zoology separately.

7. How far is the ninth grade mathematics reorganized so as to meet the real needs of both those pupils who go on and those who do not go on to college? Should not some pupils be permitted to

begin algebra or other mathematics in the tenth rather than the ninth grade?

8. Considerable attention should yet be given to the offerings in agriculture, commercial work and the practical arts in order to determine what is most fundamental in the training of high school pupils in Illinois.

9. The offerings found in both music and the fine arts in the schools taken as a whole appear to be quite too meager both as to amount and kind of subject matter offered and prescribed.

10. As to prescribed subjects, great irregularity appears to prevail both with reference to the kind of total offerings and with respect to the kind of offerings within the respective subject fields.

11. It would seem that further agreement on a constant-with-variable plan of organization of the program of studies or some modified form of it is very essential in order to make real progress in curriculum reorganization, especially in the schools having enrollments of 250 pupils and above. It may be suggested here that this need of constant and at the same time enriched subject matter is quite obvious in the smaller high schools as in the larger.

12. A brief statement is here made with reference to the years in which certain subjects are offered. A canvass of the respective subject fields has shown that, in the case of a large number of subjects, they are offered in from two to three or four different years of the high school. What guarantee is there that when the same subject is offered to freshmen, sophomores, juniors, and seniors, the subject matter is adapted to the different levels of students in classroom presentation? Attention, it appears, should be given to the common practice of the offering of the same labeled course in each of the four years. The nature of this problem will, of course, vary somewhat in the case of

the different subjects. But even then, how far can we justify the offering of the same subject in each of the three or more years of the high school, unless considerable effort be made at the same time to adapt this work to the pupils enrolled in the different years.

13. Of course, in this study there has been no intention of overlooking the obvious necessity of agreeing upon a clear and basic philosophy or theory of the program of studies as a whole. This is the essential first step, namely, through reflective thinking and painstaking effort, to try to determine the underlying

principles and concepts that should guide curriculum theorists and practitioners in the reorganization of the program of studies throughout Illinois, as well as the other states.

14. And lastly the need should be emphasized for organizing the subject matter into larger areas of knowledge rather than in tid-bit and fragmentary divisions, especially during the freshman and sophomore years. This reorganization should cover all levels throughout the elementary school, throughout the junior-senior high school, and throughout at least the first two years of college.

*North Central Association of Colleges and  
Secondary School Teachers Committee on the  
Subject-Matter Preparation of Secondary  
School Teachers*

*Secondary education--  
Teacher training*

✓  
REPORTS RELATING TO THE GENERAL AND SPECIALIZED  
SUBJECT-MATTER PREPARATION OF SECONDARY  
SCHOOL TEACHERS ✓

I. INTRODUCTORY STATEMENT  
*and others*  
F. E. HENZLIK, *University of Nebraska*

*Bibliog*

THE Committee on the Subject-Matter Preparation of Secondary School Teachers came into being in April, 1934. It was appointed as the result of a request to the Executive Committee of the North Central Association by Dean Thomas E. Benner of the University of Illinois.

The original request was for an investigation of the patterns of academic or subject-matter preparation of high school teachers. The proposal was referred by the Executive Committee to the Commission on Unit Courses and Curricula where it was discussed April 19, 1934. On that date, the Commission officially accepted the responsibility for initiating an investigation and appointed a Committee on the Subject-Matter Preparation of Secondary School Teachers.

At present the Committee is concerned with the general and specialized academic and other subject-matter preparation needed by high school teachers in the several fields of high school teaching. The Committee has not dealt, therefore, with that portion of the education of secondary school teachers which is ordinarily provided through professional courses or which is secured in service. The Committee is interested in advancing the cause of that kind of subject-matter preparation for secondary school teachers which will enable them to serve

most effectively in the secondary schools of today. This includes both the adequacy of background and the breadth and depth of specialization in a teaching field or fields necessary to insure an intelligently critical attitude toward the present high school curriculum and proposals for its reform.

In its meetings during the past year, the Committee has attempted to do five things: (1) to summarize available studies of the factors which contribute to teaching success at the secondary level; (2) to bring together and to analyze significant data concerning the subject-matter preparation of teachers and its relationship to their assignment to teaching positions; (3) to determine what are the significant trends revealed in recent reorganizations of secondary school curriculums; (4) to determine what are the significant trends revealed in recent reorganizations of curriculums for the preparation of teachers in teachers colleges, liberal arts colleges, and universities; and (5) to define issues in the light of these data which will serve as guides to further study.

The brief summary of the findings was set forth in the report of progress printed in the NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY, Volume IX, No. 4, April, 1935. These and additional conclusions were revealed by the following studies reported to the Commission on Secondary School Curricula and to the General Session of the North Central Association in April, 1935.

<sup>1</sup> These reports were made to the Association at the time of its annual meeting in April, 1935. As presented they comprise a complete unit.—THE EDITOR.



## II. FURTHER INTRODUCTORY STATEMENTS

THOMAS E. BENNER, *University of Illinois*

About three years ago, a committee of the faculty of the College of Education at the University of Illinois began an intensive study of the problem of improving the academic preparation of prospective high school teachers. This committee was convinced that the preparation received by the vast majority was not only completely inadequate for the existing curriculum, but also strikingly deficient in its provisions for developing the breadth of understanding and critical judgment which are essential to intelligent participation in the modification of the secondary school curriculum which is so widely discussed.

For a time the committee was of the opinion that the problem could be met by conferences with the academic departments of the University in which better standards of preparation in the field represented by each department could be agreed upon. It soon became clear, however, that this would contribute little to a solution. The committee found, for example, that in one or two fields, where unusually high standards of preparation were already in effect, the result had been that few of those receiving this preparation were able to find positions in the schools.

Further investigation indicated that one of the basic difficulties was the nature of the combinations of subjects taught by teachers in the secondary schools of Illinois. Five requests recently received at the University have asked for teachers qualified to teach such combinations of subjects as the following: (1) home economics, the commercial subjects, and physical education for girls; (2) Latin, home economics, and glee club; (3) mathematics, book-keeping, and general science; (4) English, biology, orchestra and glee club;

and (5) mathematics, chemistry, physics, biology, and coaching. These are not typical cases but they are not unusual ones.

The committee found that undergraduate students, with shrewd understanding of the practical problem, were resisting efforts to persuade them to go beyond minimum standards in preparation for their teaching subjects. The word had spread that one did not secure a first teaching position because of the superiority of his academic preparation, but because of the accident of having met minimum standards in each of the subjects making up the almost unique teaching combination represented by a specific vacancy. It was found that even graduates, on returning to the University, tended, in many cases, to prefer to accumulate a few hours of work in new fields in order to add to the number of teaching combinations for which they might be considered available. Further consideration of the problem suggested that before much could be done to change this situation it would be necessary to modify some of the accrediting standards which tend to contribute to it and to add new standards which would stimulate high school principals to improve some of these conditions.

Accordingly, a proposal was made to officers of the North Central Association which resulted in the appointment by the Commission on Unit Courses and Curricula of a committee on the Subject Matter Preparation of Secondary School Teachers. The report of progress of this committee appears in the April, 1935, issue of the NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY.

This new committee requested that Professor Edward F. Potthoff of the

University of Illinois continue and extend the studies on which he had been engaged by summarizing the extensive bibliographical material pertaining to the combinations of subjects taught by high school teachers. Potthoff's report to the committee reviewed 46 studies in this field. These represented studies of 21 different states, a regional study of the southern states, and two national studies. His summary stated:

*a.* That the conditions with respect to teaching combinations are chaotic.

*b.* That the total number of teaching combinations found in any one state is very large.

In Illinois, for example, the 3490 teachers who were offering instruction during the year 1931-32, in accredited high schools employing 20 teachers or less, were teaching a total of 716 different combinations. The average number of teachers per teaching combination, therefore was slightly less than five.

*c.* That many of these combinations occur very infrequently.

Potthoff found that 62.6 per cent of the teaching combinations found in Illinois high schools of 20 teachers or less were taught by only a single teacher and 96 per cent were taught by not more than 20 teachers each. One Illinois high school principal, learning of this study, wrote to Professor Potthoff to ask whether there was a teacher in Illinois who was now teaching a certain combination of subjects which he described. Potthoff was able to reply that there was only one such teacher. Presumably, the unique qualifications of this man resulted in an offer of appointment by the inquirer.

*d.* That very few of these combinations may be regarded as having become standardized.

*e.* That many combinations bring together subjects with little or no regard to the relationship existing among them.

Potthoff found that in Illinois, 28.1 per cent of the teachers in accredited high schools of 20 teachers or less had teaching combinations representing three or more departments of instruction.

*f.* That courses in the same department or field which are offered in any given high school are frequently scattered among several teachers rather than concentrated as far as possible under a single teacher.

Potthoff found that in 124 Illinois high schools offering four or five classes in English, these classes were taught by a single teacher in 67 cases, were divided between two teachers in 46 cases, among three teachers in eight cases, and among four teachers in three cases.

He found similarly that in 102 Illinois high schools with four or five classes in the social studies, 33 had assigned this load to a single teacher, 49 had divided it between two teachers, 19 had distributed it among three teachers, and one among four teachers.

*g.* That, when classified by fields rather than by departments, the courses taught in any one semester by the very large majority of teachers, schools of all sizes considered, are confined to one or two fields.

*h.* That the number of fields included in teaching combinations is much larger when data are employed which include all of the instruction offered by the same teachers over a period of several years, and when small schools only are considered.

*i.* That this conclusion relative to small schools is made more important by the large proportions of all teachers who are employed in such schools and by the practical certainty that inexperienced teachers will find their first positions there.

*j.* That the size of the teaching combinations is considerably smaller, on the average, for teachers of the special subjects than for those of the academic.

Potthoff found that only 18.2 per cent of the teachers of agriculture, only 22.9 per cent of the teachers of industrial education, and only 26.1 per cent of the teachers of home economics in Illinois

high schools of 20 teachers or less were teaching more than one subject in addition. Of the teachers of history in these same schools, 50.5 per cent were teaching more than one subject in addition.

k. That the problem of the composition of teaching combinations is definitely related to the problem of the curriculum. It is evident, for example, that if teachers were qualified in broad fields of subject matter rather than in very limited subdivisions of such fields, a much richer program of studies could be offered than is now possible, particularly in the small high schools.

It is quite clear that Professor Pott-hoff's first conclusion, as he reviewed the nationwide data, "that the conditions with respect to teaching combinations are chaotic," is a simple statement of fact. It is basic to improvement of the standards of subject matter preparation of secondary school teachers that this condition be so changed as to substitute a premium upon adequacy of preparation in one or two reasonably well related subjects for the present premium on a smattering of inadequate preparation in a larger number of fields.

The report of progress points out "that administrative officers responsible for the selection and assignment of secondary school teachers can and should do much to improve existing chaotic conditions through greater emphasis on breadth and depth of preparation when selecting new teachers and through readjustment of present teaching assignments to the end that both old and new members of the teaching staff may work more nearly in the fields of their greatest preparation. It would be both appropriate and desirable in inspecting North Central Association high schools to consider this ideal as one important standard for judging the efficiency of the school."

Following the study of the combinations of subjects taught by high school teachers, the committee sought addi-

tional data concerning the nature of the preparation of high school teachers for the subject matter fields in which they are actually teaching. Professor Harl R. Douglass of the University of Minnesota reviewed for the committee some 60 studies of this problem. These included data from state-wide investigations representing 14 different states, from two regional surveys, and from one national survey. Among the important conclusions Professor Douglass derived from these data are the following:

a. The curriculum requirements of colleges and universities training teachers within specific fields for majors in these fields, stated in terms of median credits required in all institutions, tend to center around 24-30 semester hours with the following exceptions in certain "special" subjects: home economics, 35-40; physical education, (women) 30-36, (men) 35-40; music, 40-50; and certain broad fields, e.g. general science, 35-40, and social studies, 32-36. The curricular requirements vary widely among institutions, e.g. biology, 15-55; general social studies, 20-54; physical education (men) 21-60, (women) 14-55; music, 18-80.

b. The effects of curriculum requirements in colleges do not always work out in practice because certification requirements are usually general rather than specific. Superintendents or principals often assign teachers to teach subjects for which they have not received specific preparation. Therefore, studies of the specific college preparation of teachers for the subjects they are actually teaching usually present a much less favorable picture of preparedness than do the college requirements for prospective teachers. If generalizations may be made from the great variety of conditions found and the confusion of terms and methods used in the different studies, the following are reasonable summary statements:

(1) Very few teachers are teaching only the specific major subject for which they prepared in college. Even if the major be considered as a field, very seldom are there found more than half of the teachers in any one study who are teaching only in their major fields. This situation may be traced in part to special problems of the small high school. (Median enrollment of public high schools in the United States lies between 100 and 105.) In large comprehensive high schools, it is obviously a relatively easy matter to assign a teacher to his



major subject only. In small schools the numbers of sections to be taught in the various subject fields are rarely found to be exact multiples of the standard teaching load.

(2) Large numbers of teachers are teaching one or more classes in subjects in which they have neither a major nor a minor. The numbers reported run as high as 46 per cent for some academic subjects. Twenty per cent is quite a common figure.

(3) Teachers of agriculture, home economics, English, general science, music, and French are best prepared; and teachers of physics, manual arts, and commercial subjects, least prepared. For example, some studies report medians as high as 74.5 semester-hours (agriculture), others as low as 2.4 semester-hours (commercial) of preparation in college.

(4) When separate sciences are considered, some studies report large amounts of preparation. The median preparation of teachers of general science was, in one study, 51 semester-hours. In most of the sciences the typical specific preparation of teachers is very meagre, physics (with a median of five semester-hours in one study) being the lowest reported. When science as a whole is considered as a major, the amount of preparation appears more adequate, but obviously these figures are not encouraging since so often the pattern of preparation is not well adapted to the specific subjects taught. Teachers of physics in New Jersey high schools, for example, had but one and one-half years of training in physics as compared to three years in chemistry.

(5) The limited data available indicate that individual teachers of specific branches of science and the social studies in many cases do not have preparation in related fields. In Iowa, for example, 36 per cent of the teachers of chemistry and 91 per cent of the teachers of physics had no training at all in biology; 26 per cent of the teachers in biology had no training in chemistry; 35 per cent of the teachers of economics and 69 per cent of the teachers of sociology had no training in political science; and 20 per cent of the teachers of economics had no training in sociology. In California, 23 out of 94 teachers of biological sciences, 12 out of 57 teaching chemistry, and 6 out of 23 in physics, had not even the equivalent of 12 semester hours of training in any science other than their major subject.

(6) The number without the equivalent of two years of college preparation in the field of their teaching specialization is large.

(7) There is evidence of need for broader subject-matter preparation in the facts that

(a) except in industrial, household, and fine arts and physical education, usually less than ten per cent of high school teachers are teaching exclusively in the fields of their college majors, whereas (b) usually from seventy to eighty per cent are teaching in one or more fields outside of their college majors.

A few general suggestions concerning the nature of the subject matter preparation which is desirable for secondary school teachers are obvious from the data which the committee has already reviewed. It seems clear, for example, that the present tendency to define the fields of subject matter specialization of prospective high school teachers in terms of the narrow fields of specialization characteristically found in the upper levels of universities is bad. It has contributed to the present chaotic situation with respect both to the assignment of teachers and to the inadequacy of their qualifications for the subjects to which these assignments are made. It appears likely that improvement in these conditions would result if, for example, prospective high school teachers were commonly prepared in broader fields of specialization such as the social studies or the physical or biological sciences. It will be noted that this broader definition of the field of specialization would prepare teachers who are not only more competent to serve in the high school of today, but also more capable of participating critically and intelligently in the much discussed and badly needed reorganization of the curriculum.

The problem cannot be solved, however, by merely reforming the practices of institutions engaged in the preparation of teachers for the secondary schools. There must be an accompanying reform in the standards of accrediting agencies and in the practices of school administrative officers.

As the committee continues its work, it hopes to be able to present more specific suggestions for the consideration of

this Association. The committee proposes next "(1) to assemble and interpret data concerning the number of classes by subject and by field now taught in North Central Association high schools of various sizes and (2) to study administrative conditions and procedures in North Central Association secondary schools which have a bearing on this problem." It believes these data will give further clues to practical solutions.

It will be noted that this report re-emphasizes the fact that the present

standards of the North Central Association for the accrediting of secondary schools are seriously inadequate either as measures of what constitutes a good school or as stimuli to continued self-criticism and growth. The data which have been reviewed by this committee and the preliminary conclusions which are based upon them should be of interest to the group which is cooperating with other regional accrediting bodies on the revision of secondary school standards.

### III. WHAT ARE THE FACTORS INVOLVED IN THE SUCCESS OF HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS?

STEPHEN M. COREY, *University of Nebraska*

Meriam's study,<sup>1</sup> which appeared in 1905, was the first of a long series of attempts by educators to progress beyond the arm chair stage in their understanding of the factors responsible for successful teaching. Since that date, some 400 articles and monographs have been published dealing with this matter,<sup>2</sup> the great majority of which pertain to the elementary field, although increasing attention is being directed to secondary teaching.

The results of these investigations have been quite discouraging.<sup>3</sup> While

almost everything desirable seems related to teaching success, the degree of relationship is not sufficiently close to justify much confidence in individual prognosis. This state of affairs has resulted in at least some embarrassment to professional educators, for many of them feel that teacher training is a bit difficult to justify if the nature of teaching success remains a mystery. It is more than probable, however, that educators are depressed for the simple reason that they, of all professional men, have gone to great lengths to study the factors affecting success in their own vocation. Writers in the general field of vocational guidance have, it is true, reported some encouraging studies regarding the prediction of capacity for certain relatively simple types of work, but one of the best recent publications<sup>4</sup> makes possible the inference that success in teaching is distinctly more predictable than success in most other vocations of comparable complexity.

These preliminary remarks are not intended to inspire complacency, but rather to provide a frame of reference

<sup>1</sup> J. L. Meriam, *Normal School Education and Efficiency in Teaching*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 1. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1905. Pp. 152.

<sup>2</sup> See "Teacher Personnel," *Review of Educational Research*, Vol. 1, No. 2 (1931), and Vol. 4, No. 3 (1934).

<sup>3</sup> Stephen M. Corey, "The Present Status of Ignorance about Factors Affecting Teacher Success," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. XVIII (1932), pp. 481-90.

J. V. Yaukey and P. L. Anderson, "A Review of the Literature on Factors Affecting Teaching Success," *ibid.*, Vol. XIX (1933), pp. 511-20.

Wm. Clark Trow, "How Shall Teaching Be Evaluated?" *ibid.*, Vol. XX (1934), pp. 264-72.  
A. S. Barr and L. Douglas, "Pre-training Selection of Teachers," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXVIII (1934), pp. 92-117.

R. A. Fritz, "Prediction of Probable Teaching Success," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. XX (1934), pp. 133-40.

<sup>4</sup> E. L. Thorndike and others, *Prediction of Vocational Success*. New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1934. Pp. 275.

in which to view certain statistical studies of the nature of successful teaching. The actual number of factors whose bearing upon instructional efficiency has been investigated is legion. No relationship has been sufficiently bizarre to escape the attention of graduate students or their advisers. Reports have been published of the effect upon high school teaching success of a long list of traits and achievements which run the gamut from grades received in first year high school commercial courses to practice teaching. The customary methodological procedure has involved the use of a statistical index which is notoriously difficult to interpret, namely the coefficient of correlation.<sup>5</sup>

One of the limiting characteristics of these correlation studies is that practically all of them make use of zero order coefficients measuring rectilinear relationships only. Multiple and partial correlations have been resorted to in but a few instances<sup>6</sup> and measures of curvilinear relationship (correlation ratios) not at all.

Probably the most stubborn difficulty which presents itself to those studying the nature of teaching success centers around the criterion which should be used to evaluate the efficiency of instruction. The one which has been resorted to most frequently in research studies

is the judgment of individuals, particularly of school administrators and supervisors. These may be either direct, as in teacher rating schemes, or indirect and indicated by increased salaries, promotions, tenure, and so on. Other types of judgments sometimes used are those rendered by pupils, school boards, school patrons, and teaching colleagues.

This criterion of teaching success, namely, the judgment of other individuals, is subject to rather serious limitations. While it is true that the immediate and probably the ultimate success of a teacher in terms of tenure and salary is dependent upon judgments of her achievement as rendered by administrators, supervisors, pupils, and school boards, this does not imply that these judgments are either valid or reliable.<sup>7</sup>

There is a voluminous literature dealing with the reliability or accuracy of teacher ratings. A summary of a number of such studies<sup>8</sup> yields a median coefficient of reliability of  $+.66$  with a range of from  $+.32$  to  $+.96$ . These figures, however, are not particularly enlightening. In many cases the correlations were computed between the ratings of the same teachers made by a superintendent and a supervisor. The effect which the personal relationships of these two raters might have upon their evaluation of teachers is unknown but probably significant. Just how helpful a median coefficient of reliability of  $+.66$  is may be inferred from the fact that with this degree of relationship, one's predictions are about 25 per cent better than chance.<sup>9</sup> It would seem that Rugg's<sup>10</sup>

<sup>5</sup> W. S. Monroe and D. B. Stuit, "The Interpretation of the Coefficient of Correlation," *Journal of Experimental Education*, Vol. I (1933), pp. 186-203.

<sup>6</sup> So far as the writer knows, the following investigations only have reported other than zero order coefficients in connection with studies of teaching success at the secondary level:

R. R. Ullman, "Prediction of Teaching Success," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. XVI (1930), pp. 598-608.

C. W. Boardman, *Professional Tests as Measures of Teaching Efficiency*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 327. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928. Pp. 85.

E. H. Morris, *Personal Traits and Success in Teaching*, *ibid.*, No. 342, 1929.

<sup>7</sup> Kriner writes, however: "The superintendent forms a sound conclusion, possibly a safer conclusion than one based on tests which may or may not test what society demands for its school pupils."

<sup>8</sup> "Teacher Personnel," *op. cit.*, Vol. I, p. 101.

<sup>9</sup> Monroe and Stuit, *op. cit.*

<sup>10</sup> H. O. Rugg, "Is the Rating of Human Character Practical?" *Journal of Educational Psychology*, Vol. XII (1921).



statement made in 1921 still deserves serious consideration. He claimed that "The unreliability of current typical ratings of teachers is so great that they are almost valueless."

A question probably more important than the reliability of teacher ratings has to do with their validity. Even if it were true that administrators and supervisors are measuring something with a degree of accuracy in their ratings of teachers, it need not follow that this something is teaching ability. Despite the fact that the rather obvious test of teaching is the changes which occur in pupils,<sup>11</sup> no attempts have been made to validate teaching ratings in terms of measured pupil progress on the secondary level. In the elementary field four studies report correlations ranging from  $+.45$  to  $+.05$  between teacher ratings and measured pupil progress.<sup>12</sup> Barr, Torgerson and others<sup>13</sup> have in press a volume entitled *The Measurement of Teaching Ability* which describes even less encouraging findings. These studies make rather explicit the fact that in the elementary field at least there is a great discrepancy between teacher ratings and pupil learning. As has been said, no one

knows the status of this same situation on the secondary level, although positive correlations have been reported between pupil learning and practice teaching grades with initial ability uncontrolled. This oversight, of course, makes inferences regarding the validity of the practice teaching grades very questionable.<sup>14</sup>

The use of pupil achievement as a criterion of teaching success has been recommended many times. As early as 1920 Kent<sup>15</sup> stated that: "Few rating scales give any particular consideration to the results of teaching as compared to certain other factors which are always assumed to be related to the obtaining of these results." Ideally, the most successful teacher is the one who is able to teach the greatest number of the finest things. The only way to discover accurately in terms of this criterion which teacher is functioning most efficiently is to measure as much of the pupils' learning as possible. This would involve, of course, a measurement not only of academic progress but also of the development of attitudes, ideals,—in fact, all traits, intellectual and moral, which a teacher influences.

This criterion of teaching success, despite what would seem to be its fundamental nature, is used very infrequently. Of sixteen studies<sup>16</sup> published between 1930 and 1934 inclusive and dealing with the prediction of teaching success, only four<sup>17</sup> used as a criterion measured

<sup>11</sup> S. A. Courtis writes, "The only definition [of teaching efficiency] I am willing to accept must be in terms of changes in the pupils taught." *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. XVIII (1932), pp. 401-12.

<sup>12</sup> C. W. Hill, "The Efficiency Ratings of Teachers," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. XXI (1921), pp. 438-43.

H. Taylor, "The Influence of the Teacher on Relative Class Standing, etc." *Twenty-seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, 1928, pp. 97-100.

Lelah M. Crabbs, *Measuring Efficiency in Supervision and Teaching*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 175. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1925.

Edna Simmons, *Correlation of Administrative Ratings of Teachers and Pupil Achievement*. Unpublished Doctor's thesis, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1932. Pp. 97.

<sup>13</sup> A. S. Barr, T. L. Torgerson, and others, *The Measurement of Teaching Ability*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1935.

<sup>14</sup> R. W. Frederick, and F. C. Hollister, "Relationship between the Academic Success of Pupils and the Practice Teaching Grades Received by Their Teachers," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. XX (1934), pp. 468-71.

<sup>15</sup> R. A. Kent, "What Should Teacher Rating Scales Seek to Measure?" *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. II (1920), p. 802.

<sup>16</sup> "Teacher Personnel," *op. cit.*, Vol. IV, pp. 264ff.

<sup>17</sup> Barr, Torgerson, and others, *op. cit.*

G. L. Betts, "The Education of Teachers Evaluated through the Measurement of Teaching Ability," statement from the National Survey of

pupil progress, and none of these was concerned with high school instruction. Even these few studies, however, are encouraging in their indication of heightened interest in a more valid criterion of successful teaching.

In the space allotted me it will not be possible to review in any detail particular studies. Rather, an attempt will be made to summarize what appears to be the *status quo* with respect to high school teaching success as related to four, empirically delimited, groups of factors: first, general traits and characteristics such as personality, socio-economic status, interest in teaching, age, and teaching experience; second, intelligence; third, high school training and extra-curricular activities; and last, college training.

Of the general factors, age and teaching experience can be disposed of rather quickly. The former, granting the inevitable selection imposed by training requirements, correlates very slightly with estimated teaching success.<sup>18</sup> Experience likewise has no significant bearing on instructional efficiency<sup>19</sup> after approximately the first semester of actual instruction. The median of a list of twelve coefficients of correlation which have been reported dealing with this relationship was +.29. Granting the validity of the criterion, these results imply rather serious criticisms of the growth of teachers in service. It would seem that after a teacher "catches on," so to speak, —and this is achieved by many during the period of practice teaching and by others before the end of the first year

of actual teaching—his teaching experience contributes little to his success.

Although it is claimed that teachers college graduates represent a select socio-economic group,<sup>20</sup> the relationship between this factor and estimated teaching success is negligible according to results obtained with the Sim's Socio-Economic Scale.<sup>21</sup> Similar negative results have been obtained with certain other family and economic-status data.<sup>22</sup> Personality in general, however, is not so easily disposed of. Those studies involving the relationship between subjectively estimated personality traits and teaching success have been of little value. Very high correlations have recently been reported between practice teaching success and certain traits such as sincerity and enthusiasm,<sup>23</sup> but the same supervisors estimated both the personality traits and the teaching success. This methodological limitation, a very common one in early studies, is so serious as to render the results invalid. Neel and Mead<sup>24</sup> have published similar results which may be subject to the same criticism. These authors used the Almy-Sorenson Rating Scale as a measure of personal traits but did not report who did the rating.

Recently a number of objective measurements of personality<sup>25</sup> have been

<sup>20</sup>Margaret Kiely, *Comparisons of Students of Teachers Colleges and Liberal Arts Colleges*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 440. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931. Pp. 147.

<sup>21</sup>Ullman, *op. cit.*

<sup>22</sup>H. L. Kriner, *Pretraining Factors Predictive of Teacher Success*. State College, Pennsylvania: Pennsylvania State College, 1931. Pp. 91.

<sup>23</sup>M. L. Hatcher, "Qualities of Personality Compared with Success in Practice Teaching," *Peabody Journal of Education*, Vol. XI (1934), pp. 246-53.

<sup>24</sup>M. O. Neel, and A. R. Mead, "Correlations between Certain Group Factors in the Preparation of Secondary School Teachers," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. XVII (1931), pp. 675-76.

<sup>25</sup>"Tests of Personality and Character," *Review of Educational Research*, Vol. II, (1932). Pp. 270.

the Education of Teachers conducted by the Office of Education, U.S. Department of the Interior, Washington, D.C.

T. L. Torgerson, *Manual for Torgerson Diagnostic Teacher Rating Scale of Instructional Activities*. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co.

Simmons, *op. cit.*

<sup>18</sup>"Teacher Personnel," *op. cit.*, Vol. I, p. 103.

<sup>19</sup>*Ibid.*, p. 103.

published, and those interested in prognosticating teaching success have availed themselves of these materials. Morris<sup>26</sup> has contributed the most comprehensive study of the bearing upon high school teaching success of objectively measured personality traits. She reported a correlation of  $+.54$  between her Trait Index L, a composite measure, and practice teaching grades. Similar studies involving the use of the Moss Social Intelligence Test<sup>27</sup> and the Bernreuter Personality Inventory<sup>28</sup> have not been so encouraging.

Interest in teaching is rather generally considered to have an important bearing upon teaching success although it appears that only some twenty-five per cent of the freshmen in state teachers colleges expect definitely to make teaching their life work.<sup>29</sup> While there is no apparent relationship between teaching success and scores on scales such as the Cowdery-Strong Interest questionnaire,<sup>30</sup> Kriner<sup>31</sup> found a marked difference between good and poor instructors in terms of the degree of interest in teaching which they recollected having had during the high school and elementary school period. Kriner's results are very difficult to interpret because of the exceedingly great subjectivity in the measurement of interest, but they are quite suggestive.

The second general factor which has been thought to affect teaching success, namely intelligence, has been the subject of many investigations. Intelligence test scores seem to correlate more highly with

secondary than with elementary instruction, and more highly with practice teaching than with actual teaching.<sup>32</sup> In no case, however, is the relationship particularly marked. Ullman<sup>33</sup> found that general intelligence and teaching success correlated  $+.15$  at the end of the first four months of teaching experience although this figure is below the median ( $+.33$ ) for five other similar investigations.

A number of authors<sup>34</sup> have pointed out that high school teachers, in view of their having been graduated from college, are a highly select group with respect to intelligence, which homogeneity would tend to decrease the magnitude of any coefficient of correlation involving this variable. Such an argument is a bit less convincing than it might otherwise be in view of the lower correlation between intelligence and teaching success on the elementary level where academic selection may be assumed to have played a lesser role.

Despite this consideration studies such as those made by Dean Johnston<sup>35</sup> at the University of Minnesota indicate that a very small per cent of college matriculants who are in the lowest quintile with respect to aptitude ratings are ever graduated. In view of the fact that North-central states seldom certify high school teachers with fewer than 125 college hours of credit, intelligence tests can be used very effectively as a means of selecting teachers. Broom<sup>36</sup> and others have recommended this practice and

<sup>26</sup> Morris, *op. cit.*

<sup>27</sup> Ullman, *op. cit.*

<sup>28</sup> S. R. Laycock, "The Bernreuter Personality Inventory in the Selection of Teachers," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. XX (1934), pp. 59-63.

<sup>29</sup> Emma Reinhardt, "Probable Future Occupation of Freshmen in a Teachers College," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol XXX (1929), pp. 200-7.

<sup>30</sup> Ullman, *op. cit.*

<sup>31</sup> Kriner, *op. cit.*

<sup>32</sup> Yaukey and Anderson, *op. cit.*

<sup>33</sup> Ullman, *op. cit.*

<sup>34</sup> H. Sorenson, "Why Teaching Success Does Not Correlate Highly with Measured Intelligence," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. XV (1929), pp. 602-6.

M. E. Broom, "Intelligence and Teaching Success," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. XVIII (1932), pp. 422-26.

Trow, *op. cit.*

<sup>35</sup> J. B. Johnston, *Who Should Go to College?* Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1930.

<sup>36</sup> Broom, *op. cit.*



the teachers colleges in Ohio are now using the Ohio Psychological Examination for this purpose.

The most extensive recent study of the effect of high school training and extra-curricular activities upon teaching success has been reported by Kriner.<sup>37</sup> While his results are difficult to interpret because of the unique statistical treatment employed it appears that high school scholarship correlates but  $+0.27$  with teaching success, although persistence in certain high school subjects, such as Mathematics, Latin, and Science, was considerably more indicative of instructional efficiency. Interestingly enough, persistence in social studies correlated negatively with teaching success. Other authors have reported substantially these same results.<sup>38</sup> Participation in secondary extracurricular activities was likewise not related to teaching success.<sup>39</sup>

The relationship between the quantity and quality of college training and success as a secondary school teacher has interested many investigators. With respect to professional courses, Jones<sup>40</sup> found that Teachers College graduates employed in Texas and Missouri were superior to Arts College graduates when comparisons were made of tenure, salary and per cent of administrative positions held. Frederick and Bookheim<sup>41</sup> claim that there is no advantage in

spreading professional training over a four year interval. Concentrating it all in one year has no apparent effect upon practice teaching success. There is some evidence that no relationship exists between rated teaching efficiency and college credits earned in service.<sup>42</sup>

Grades received in professional college courses are negligibly related to teaching success,<sup>43</sup> with the exception of practice teaching, which correlates, on the average, about  $+0.40$ . Peterson<sup>44</sup> found quite significant correlations ( $+0.22$ ,  $+0.30$ ,  $+0.43$ ,  $+0.71$ ) between college grade averages and salary five years after graduation, but his coefficients were "corrected for attenuation" without any report being made of the reliability of the original measures used. The actual number of hours of professional work in education seems to have no significance. Broom<sup>45</sup> found a correlation between this factor and teaching success of  $+0.01$ . He also found a negative correlation ( $-0.23$ ) between the number of education courses taken and intelligence,—which has unsavory implications regarding the quality of these courses. The few standardized tests dealing with educational information are no more predictive of teaching success than are grades in education courses. Ullman<sup>46</sup> reports correlations of  $+0.09$  and  $+0.01$  between estimated teaching success and the Weber Test of Principles in Education and the Odell Test of

<sup>37</sup> Kriner, *op. cit.*

<sup>38</sup> H. J. Anderson, "Correlation between Academic Achievement and Teaching Success," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. XXII (1931), pp. 22-29.

<sup>39</sup> Kriner, *op. cit.*

<sup>40</sup> W. C. Jones, *A Comparative Study of Certain Phases of the Status of Graduates of State Teachers Colleges and Liberal Arts Colleges in the Teaching Profession*. George Peabody College Contribution to Education, No. 102. Nashville: George Peabody College for Teachers, 1931. Pp. 75.

<sup>41</sup> R. W. Frederick and A. Bookheim, "Study of the Effects of Concentrated and Scattered Professional Training on Success in Teaching," *School and Society*, Vol. XXXVIII (1933), pp. 683ff.

<sup>42</sup> H. M. Barthelmess and P. A. Boyer, "A Study of the Relationship between Teaching Efficiency and Amount of College Credit Earned While in Service," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. XIV (1928), pp. 521-35.

<sup>43</sup> F. Shreve, "Scholarship as a Factor in Teaching," *Peabody Journal of Education*, Vol. VIII (1930), pp. 144-48.

<sup>44</sup> H. A. Peterson, "Relationship of Scholarship during College Career to Success in Teaching as Judged by Salary," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. XX (1934), pp. 625-28.

<sup>45</sup> M. E. Broom, "Note on Predicting Teaching Success," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. XVIII (1932), pp. 64-67.

<sup>46</sup> Ullman, *op. cit.*

Principles of Teaching in Secondary Schools respectively.

During the past ten years there have appeared a number of standardized tests to be used for prognosticating teaching success: The Coxe-Orleans Prognosis Test of Teaching Ability, The Dearborn Aptitude Test for Teachers, The George Washington University Teaching Aptitude Test, The Whitney-Hertzberg Professional Aptitude Test for Elementary and Junior High School Teachers, The Stanford Educational Aptitude Test and The Bathurst-Knight-Ruch-Telford Aptitude Test for Elementary and High School Teachers. A number of studies<sup>47</sup> have been reported of attempts to validate these tests in terms of estimated teaching success. Of eleven correlations reported the median figure was  $+.26$ .

Academic course grades are no more predictive of success in teaching than grades in professional courses. Of nine correlations reported since 1930, the median was  $+.14$ .<sup>48</sup> The effect upon instructional efficiency of the pattern of the college academic training has received but little attention. Hughes<sup>49</sup> reported in this connection that, other things being equal, high school pupils taking physics under teachers who had

<sup>47</sup> Among these are N. L. Bossing, "Teacher Aptitude Tests and Teacher Selection," *Research in Higher Education*, U.S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1931, No. 12, pp. 117-133.

Barr and Douglas, *op. cit.*

Boardman, *op. cit.*

Nancy Castleman and others, "An Aptitude Test for High School Teachers," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. XV (1931), pp. 208-13.

W. W. Coxe and Ethel Cornell, "The Prognosis of Teaching Ability, etc.," *University of the State of New York Bulletin*, 1934, p. 63.

M. R. Dodd, "A Study of Teaching Aptitude," *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. XXVI (1933), pp. 517-21.

Thelma Hunt, "Measuring Teaching Aptitude," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. XV (1929), pp. 334-42.

<sup>48</sup> "Teacher Personnel," *op. cit.*, pp. 264ff.

<sup>49</sup> J. M. Hughes, "A Study of Intelligence and of the Training of Teachers as Factors Conditioning the Achievement of Pupils," *School Review*, Vol. XXXIII (1925), pp. 191-200.

a college major in this subject learned more than pupils taught by persons who had not majored in physics. Ullman<sup>50</sup> found very little correlation ( $+.20$ ) between grades in the teacher's major subject and his estimated success.

In connection with all of these correlation studies it is well to keep in mind that the coefficients are derived from basic data which leave much to be desired with respect to both reliability and validity. Just what bearing this limitation has upon statistical manipulations, no matter how refined or how ponderously elaborated, is well known to students of educational measurements.

Reading the numerous reports which have appeared in the learned journals dealing with the relationship of certain factors to teaching success, is conducive to rather keen feelings of disappointment. This is not so much because the results of the studies are at variance with one another, or because they are largely negative, but rather because the researchers so assiduously employ a technique which seems to be fundamentally unsound. The methodological limitation which tends to invalidate all the studies which I have discussed is the criterion of teaching success which is used. A suggestion was made earlier in the paper that data from the elementary field rather amply demonstrate the incompatibility of teacher evaluations based upon ratings and upon measured pupil progress. It is of course plain that our techniques for measuring pupil progress are inadequate, but bearing this in mind, it is still difficult to conjure up an explanation for the recent negative correlations found by Barr, Torgerson and others<sup>51</sup> between teacher ratings and pupil achievement on the elementary level.

Assistant Superintendent O. H. Bimson of the Lincoln Public Schools is at

<sup>50</sup> Ullman, *op. cit.*

<sup>51</sup> Barr, Torgerson, and others, *op. cit.*

present conducting an investigation in the high schools which would seem to mark a step forward in our attempts to understand the nature of successful high school teaching. He is confining himself to two subjects, American History and first-year algebra, and is including some thirty teachers of each subject in the Lincoln and Omaha school systems. He is giving comprehensive tests to the pupils at the beginning and end of the year in order to measure their progress. In the case of the American History classes he is giving also a number of attitude scales to see what changes take place in the students' beliefs and points of view. These measurements will provide, after due precautions have been taken, as valid a criterion of teaching success as it is now possible to develop.

So far the description of Mr. Bimson's program involves little that is new. The rather novel emphasis will lie in his attempt to determine what characteristics in instructors are responsible for en-

hanced pupil learning. The teachers are to be made subjects of an intensive investigation. It has already been demonstrated that even within a large city school system the variation in the results obtained by different teachers is extremely great,<sup>52</sup> even after other factors such as intelligence and socio-economic status have been controlled.

Until a study of the sort which Mr. Bimson, and, I understand, Mr. H. H. Hagen of Crane High School, are attempting is completed and reported upon, it would seem to be fruitless to continue researches of the same old sort where correlations are computed between subjectively estimated teaching success and certain other more or less objectively measured factors.

<sup>52</sup> L. C. Day, "The Teaching Quotient," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. XXXIII (1933), pp. 604-7.

W. C. Seyfert and B. S. Tyndal, "An Evaluation of Differences in Teaching Ability," *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. XXVIII (1934), pp. 10-15.

#### IV. SUBJECT MATTER PREPARATION OF HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS

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No matter what may be the fundamental premise with respect to the objectives of education and the manner in which subject matter should be divided and organized for the purposes of instruction, it should be obvious that it is desirable that teachers be well trained in the fields of knowledge in which they work. One may readily grant that effective teaching in high school is conditioned by those human traits which in their totality we call personality and still not be compelled to yield the slightest with respect to the necessity of this relationship. It may not be possible to demonstrate experimentally or otherwise objectively that effective teaching varies with amount and nature of education for teaching. In fact the few

studies that have been made do not seem to establish any such relationship. It has proven, indeed, impossible to obtain any measure of teaching success which possesses high validity and reliability. Test scores possess gross limitations. They measure but a part of the objectives and outcomes of instruction. High test scores may be obtained at the cost of sacrifices in some educational outcomes and possibly may be obtained by methods conducive to undesirable social outcomes and attitudes towards the subject-matter itself. They are almost impossible of interpretation and comparison for the purposes of comparing the relative effectiveness of teachers, unless the pupils in the classes of the teachers to be compared have been



paired on valid and reliable measures of capacity and on initial status in the fields to be taught. Even then comparisons are made with risk as we cannot be certain of the comparability of the units of measurement of achievement.

While experimental or other inductive proof of the relationship between the knowledge of the teacher and her usefulness as an instructor is very desirable, the relationship is so clearly evident as a necessary fact supported by deductive reasoning of a careful sort that the inability to verify it inductively is not vital.

#### LIMITATIONS OF STUDIES OF THE PREPARATION OF TEACHERS

Most studies of the preparation of teachers for the subject they teach have been too crude to be other than indicative and suggestive, valuable as they have been for those purposes. They are subject to the following limitations:

1. *The units employed for measuring preparation are not standard.* The data of many studies are in terms of the proportion of teachers having majors or minors in the fields taught and for this reason render comparisons and conclusions difficult. Requirements for majors and minors vary greatly from institution to institution. Either as undergraduates or subsequent to graduation, students elect varying amounts of work in their major and minor fields beyond the minimum requirements.

In some of the studies, the measure employed was whether the teacher had what was thought to be adequate preparation in the field taught and in still others whether they had had any training at all in the fields. Even in those studies in which the preparation was expressed in the number of semester or quarter hours, as well as those in terms of majors and minors, the pattern of preparation, perhaps as significant as

amount was not available for study.

2. *The units employed as measures of preparation are not comparable.* The division of subject matter into fields for the purpose of majors and minors is not done on a uniform basis by institutions education teachers. In some institutions prospective teachers may major in science as a whole, and in others he may major in "physical science." In the majority, however, he may choose a specialized branch of science, physics for example. In some institutions the student has alternatives among these practices. This condition exists also in the social studies and to a lesser extent in English.

3. The criteria employed for classification of credits and for major-minors are not uniform among the studies.

4. The studies throw no light on the extent to which teachers are prepared in related and supporting fields, e.g., physics or economics for mathematics.

#### GENERALIZATIONS PERMISSIBLE FROM THE AVAILABLE STUDIES

For these reasons it is quite difficult to present accurately generalizations from the available studies in specific quantitative terms. Yet a review of sixty odd investigations reveal fairly closely what seems to be definite trends or tendencies.

1. *A very small proportion, most probably less than 20 per cent, of those studied, except in the fields of physical education, industrial arts, and fine arts, taught only in fields in which they had a college major.* Earl Anderson's study, for example, of Ohio teachers (1933) revealed that only 16 per cent of those majoring in biology were teaching biology alone; and 38 per cent of biology majors were not teaching any biology. Most of the lower figures are for minor fields of subject matter such as one of the sub-divisions of science or of the

social studies for fields in which it is quite common for only two years of instruction to be given as in the case of foreign language.

2. *While the very large majority of teachers did the majority of their teaching in fields in which they had either a major or a minor, there was a very considerable number, centering around 20 per cent, who taught one or more classes in which they have neither a major nor a minor.* In some of the studies, the proportion so doing in some fields runs as high as 40 per cent. In South Dakota, a state of small high schools, as reported by Janes in 1929, 53 per cent of 807 teachers in 182 schools taught one or more classes in subjects outside their major and minor fields.

3. *A very considerable proportion of teachers were teaching one or more classes in fields in which they had very little or no college courses.* Hutson's study (1924) of Minnesota teachers revealed that half of the teachers of political science had less than 5 semester hours of college work in political science, and practically identical conditions existed with reference to teachers of sociology and economics.

Only 37 per cent of the Iowa teachers of commercial subjects studied by Philip (1931) had had major training in that field.

In Alabama, Clifton (1933) found that 44 per cent of the teachers of physical education and 22 per cent of the teachers of commercial subjects had had no college courses in their fields.

4. *A very high percentage of teachers in science and social studies including history, had little or no training in one or more branches of their general fields.* Fitzpatrick and Hutson (1925) discovered that of 172 Minnesota teachers in social studies, including history, 72 per cent had not a single college course in ancient history, 29 per cent had not

a single college course in American history, 41 per cent had not a single college course in political science, 45 per cent had not a single college course in economics, 41 per cent had not a single college course in sociology. Only 27 per cent of these had any credit in four or more of the six fields. Only about one-half of the English teachers had had any courses in public speaking, less than half had courses in American literature and no more than one in four had college work in dramatic interpretation.

In Inman's study of Iowa teachers (1928) less than 60 per cent of 244 teaching general science had any training in more than two fields; over a third of the majors in political science had had no training in political science and over two-thirds of these majors in sociology had no training in political science.

In California, Boone, and Pringle (1934) found that 23 of 94 teachers of biological science, 12 of the 57 teaching chemistry, and 6 of the 23 in physics had not so much as 12 semester hours in any science other than their major field.

5. *Teachers of agriculture, home economics, general science, music, have on the average the greatest amounts of college preparation for their fields, and teachers of physics, manual arts, and commercial subjects the least preparation, while the other subjects range in between, English being well above the average, and history and manual arts well below.* In six studies containing pertinent data relative to the preparation and to the training the median numbers of semesters were 74.5, 60.0, 55.5, 50.0, 45.0 and 36.3. In seven of eight investigations, the medians for teachers of home economics averaged from 28 to 48. In nine studies medians for general science ranged from 20 to 51. In eight from English, the medians ranged from 20.0 to 26.5.

On the other hand in two studies the

TABLE I  
MEDIAN NUMBER OF SEMESTER HOURS OF PREPARATION BY SUBJECTS WHICH TEACHERS TEACH

Author	Agri.	Commercial	English	Home Ec.	Latin	French	Spanish	Man. Arts	Math.	Music	General Science	Biology	Physics	Chemistry	Social Science	History	No. of Teachers
Bachman, F. P. (Ark.) .....	..	..	20.0	10.5	..	12.0	18.0	..	6.5	..	20.0	..	5.0	8.0	..	9.2	546
Hutson, P. W. (Calif.) .....	60.0	15.0	24.8	30.0	32.0	..	28.0	8.5	14.8	30.9	51.0	20.9	9.0	20.2	20.0	16.3	312
Hutson, P. W. (Minn.) .....	74.5	2.4	25.2	40.8	32.0	22.0	..	13.0	13.5	..	40.5	16.0	8.1	21.0	..	18.0	345
Hill, H. H. (N.C.) .....	48.0	..	26.5	48.0	..	12.0	..	..	8.0	..	20.0	..	..	..	18.0	..	91
Fitzpatrick, E. A., and Hutson, P. W. (Pa.) .....	55.5	2.8	24.0	47.0	28.2	24.0	..	8.5	12.7	..	34.3	8.5	8.3	14.8	8.4	12.3	316
Woody, C., and Koos, L. V. (Wash.) .....	..	..	25.0	30.0	8.8	..	..	7.5	9.8	..	42.3	..	8.1	14.2	..	9.8	146
Ligon, M. E. (Southern Ass'n.) ..	36.3	8.5	25.7	34.2	20.1	19.3	19.8	22.5	16.3	27.1	21.4	13.9	10.7	20.6	16.4	18.5	14,495
Jones (Tenn.) .....	50.0	19.0	22.0	28.0	16.0	13.0	13.0	28.0	15.0	24.5	24.7	7.2	..	13.0	22.0	..	1,445



median semester hours of preparation of commercial teachers was reported as 2.4 and 2.8, in no study higher than 19.0, and for physics the medians in six studies ranged between 5.0 and 10.7. The medians for history teachers in six surveys ranged from 9.2 to 18.5 semester hours and for manual arts teachers in six studies from 7.5 to 28.5, though only in two studies did the median exceed 13.0.

6. *The few pertinent studies available, such as those by the National Survey of the Education of Teachers (1933) and by Bowden (1930) indicate that even when measured by semester hours with no more definite assurance of a desired content, teachers are not educated on a broad cultural basis.*

The proper interpretation of such findings leads in many directions. Among the explanations of the conditions found may be offered the following.

1. Teachers are not prepared in the teacher-training institutions as badly as it seems. Investigations of the minimum requirements for graduation from such schools reveals that the *amounts* of preparation required are fairly respectable. They exceed by a wide margin the average training the teacher for the subjects actually assigned to her. The median number of semester hours required for a major tends to center around 24 to 30 in most fields. In the so-called special fields it is usually greater centering around 35 to 40 hours in home economics, 30 to 40 hours in physical education, and 40 to 50 in music. The minimum requirements vary greatly from school to school—e.g. in biology 15 to 55, in physical education 14 to 60, and in music 18 to 80.

2. It is an unavoidable consequent of small schools that many teachers be required to teach two subjects, and that some teach three subjects. It is to be expected then that as long as half of the

high schools have no more than 105 pupils and in many states the median enrollment is no more than 60, investigations will continue to reveal large percentages of teachers teaching at least one class in subjects for which they are inadequately prepared. Until the small high school disappears it is futile to talk of legislation or regulation preventing teachers from teaching at least a class or two in fields in which they are not adequately prepared.

3. It should be obvious however, that the extent to which teachers are assigned two, three, four and even five or six subjects, as shown in the studies summarized by Dr. Potthoff, is far greater than is made necessary by the conditions of the small high school. Administrators and boards of education have been grossly negligent both in the selection and the assignment of teachers. In the very large majority of instances those responsible for the selection and the assignment of teachers do not gather adequate data concerning the preparation of teachers. Rarely do they ascertain more than the fields in which the candidate majored and minored in college. Usually they take the candidate's word for that. In many instances, they know only what subjects the candidate has taught and what she thinks she can teach best.

Because employing officers do not insist upon it, teachers' agencies never, and placement bureaus rarely, furnish detailed data comparable to a transcript of courses taken. In most instances the teachers' agency does not even have the data. This unnecessary loose practice is no doubt responsible for much of the maladjustment present in teachers' assignments.

Another contributory factor is the common practice of permitting teachers who have been in the school for several years to select from the classes taught

by teachers leaving the school, such as they prefer to teach. What is left unclaimed is then thrown together, often a sort of crazy quilt, for the incoming new teacher or teachers. No doubt in many instances an investigation would reveal that the older teacher has chosen to take over classes in fields in which she is not competent, in the belief, perhaps, that the new field affords better opportunity for financial advancement or merely because she imagines she would prefer to teach or to improve herself in the new fields.

4. In interpreting these studies, it might well be supported also that the numbers of hours in a given field does not furnish an adequate picture of the preparation of a teacher for teaching in high school. There may even be a point beyond which additional training in a field operates to widen undesirably the gap between the pupil and the teacher. At any rate there are great differences in the usefulness of different college courses for the purpose of training high school teachers. For a teacher of high school mathematics the mathematical theory of investment is probably of much greater value than advanced calculus and for a teacher of history a balanced assortment of courses is much more desired than an equal number of semester hours of preparation in a highly specialized field.

5. Still another factor to be considered in evaluating data from these studies of preparation is the danger in comparing data concerning teachers of physics, let us say, with teachers of a broad field, let us say English. It would be more nearly sound to compare the training of teachers in science with that of teachers in English.

#### RECOMMENDATIONS

Taken in connection with the data of such studies as those reported by Dr. Potthoff, certain inferences seem clear.

1. Teachers should be trained in broader fields rather than in narrow fields, e.g. in history and social studies rather than in political science or history.

2. The fields of specialization should be those of the high school divisions of instruction, not the administrative divisions of the college or university.

3. The pattern of preparation of teachers in training should be intelligently charted and blanket minimum prescriptions of so many semester hours of no matter how badly assorted hours should be abandoned. These patterns should insure a broad spread of training in fundamental and related fields and specialization in one of the subdivisions should be a secondary provision.

4. Teachers in training should be educated in one minor field. If larger areas are taken as the units of fields e.g. social studies, science, etc. and if each teacher is given a fairly well rounded cultural foundation there will be little need for more than one minor field. Particularly is this true, if administrators come to make the most intelligent selection and assignment of teachers.

5. Requirements of teacher training curricula should be such as will insure orientation of teachers in the great cultural and informational fields regardless of their field of specialization e.g. the fields of human affairs—social science, of natural science, and of fine arts.

6. It does not seem necessary to continue to think in terms of four years of college education for teachers. If thorough preparation in one broad field, a fair preparation in one minor field, a well rounded cultural background, and adequate professional training can not be accomplished in four years, five years should be employed. In no other leading country is it attempted to train teachers of secondary schools in so short a period.

7. Regional and accrediting agencies

and institutions should in the evaluation and accrediting of schools place much emphasis upon the selection and assignment of teachers. This should constitute one of the major criteria by which the organization and administration of the school be judged. To be sure the stand-

ards will vary with the size of the school, but as among schools of a given size standards should be readily developed. In the final analysis, it does not avail much, if good teachers are employed and then assigned to tasks under a heavy and unnecessary handicap.

#### V. WHAT COMBINATIONS OF SUBJECTS CONSTITUTE THE TEACHING LOAD OF SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS ✓

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This report on the combinations of subjects taught by high school teachers consists of two parts: the first part presents a brief summary of a number of investigations which have been found bearing upon the problem of teaching combinations; the second part contains a report of two studies relative to this problem which the speaker has recently conducted and which are still in unpublished form.

The studies summarized in the first part of this report include a total of thirty-eight investigations, one of which embraces the teachers found in almost all of the high schools accredited by the Southern Association, one of which represents the *National Survey of the Education of Teachers*, and one of which refers to several states served by a university employment bureau. The remaining thirty-five studies cover all or part of the teachers found in any one of nineteen different states. Of these states, twelve are included in the territory of the North Central Association and they constitute the field for all but twelve of the investigations.

The data used in a total of twenty-six of the studies represent conditions that maintained within the last ten years, and four additional studies, each of which extended over several years, include a part of this period. Twelve of the studies include less than one thousand teachers each, eleven embrace between one thou-

sand and two thousand each, ten between two thousand and ten thousand each, and three cover still larger numbers. Exact information as to the number of teachers was not supplied in two cases.

Most of the investigations reviewed show in one way or another that the conditions found with respect to teaching combinations were chaotic. Thus several reports emphasize the fact that the number of combinations was very large, one writer pointing out that in his state the number ran well above one thousand. Other studies call attention to the infrequent occurrence of many combinations, one investigation showing that 70 per cent of the teachers who returned a questionnaire sent to those in the accredited schools of the state had non-recurring combinations. It has been shown that the number of infrequently occurring combinations may be so large as to affect very considerable proportions of teachers. Some reports show that standardized combinations were either non-existent or surprisingly small in number.

Another type of evidence that points to a chaotic state of affairs has been obtained by considering the composition of teaching combinations, that is, the subjects that comprise them. It has been shown by tabulating the data for individual subjects that any one subject was likely to be combined with all, or nearly all, others. This was true espe-



cially of certain subjects that are commonly taught, namely English, mathematics, sciences, and social studies. The *National Survey of the Education of Teachers* reveals that every possible combination of each of fifteen broad fields with every other field actually occurred. As a consequence of these conditions, courses in several totally unrelated departments or fields were frequently taught by the same teacher, and unrelated subjects were, in some states, more often combined than were related ones. In some states a course in one of the sciences, social studies, or foreign languages, was no more likely, or even less likely, to be taught by a teacher who offered other courses in the same field than by one all of whose remaining work belonged in totally different fields. For this reason one writer referred to the field of the social studies as "an academic no-man's land." It appears that an almost endless variety of combinations now exists, many of them exhibiting neither rhyme nor reason with respect to the subjects brought together.

The implications of the chaotic state of affairs which has been revealed are, of course, clear. It is altogether impossible for teacher-training institutions to prepare teachers for the great number and variety of combinations now existing. As a consequence, when vacancies on a high-school staff are to be filled, the list of applicants who possess the necessary subject-matter qualifications may be very small indeed, and if the choice of the new teacher must be restricted to those who meet these requirements, all of the generally desirable candidates may be eliminated from consideration, and the selection may have to be made from a group none of whom is well qualified in any respect other than preparation in the teaching combination. As a consequence, then, of the high degree of

specialization of many teaching positions, any efforts to raise the standards relative to teachers are defeated, at least in a measure; both the schools and the generally superior candidates for positions become the victims of the chaotic conditions.

The problem of teaching combinations is particularly serious among the small schools, the combinations found there containing more subjects and a greater variety of subjects than do those found among the larger schools. Thus the *National Survey of the Education of Teachers* shows that of the total of more than 82,000 teachers who returned questionnaires, 9 per cent were teaching in three of fifteen broad fields, but that of the teachers found in schools having only from three to nine teachers on the staff, 25 per cent had combinations consisting of three fields. Many of the studies included in this summary show that there was an inverse variation between the size of teaching combinations and the size of the schools. Several investigations indicate that from 25 to 45 per cent of all teachers found in schools having not more than ten members on the staff were offering courses in three or more subjects.

The size of the combinations assigned to teachers in small schools is significant because there is a large number of such schools in existence and many teachers are employed in them, and also because a very large proportion of inexperienced teachers begin teaching in such schools. Two of the studies included in this report reveal that inexperienced teachers very rarely found their first positions in schools having more than ten teachers on the staff, and two other reports point out that unusually high proportions of beginning teachers were included on the faculties of schools of this size.

The second part of this report contains a brief statement of certain studies

recently conducted by the speaker upon the problem of teaching combinations. One of these studies was concerned with the combinations of subjects taught during the year 1931-32 by 3490 teachers in the 525 accredited public high-schools in the State of Illinois having no more than twenty teachers on the staff. The study included 84 per cent of all accredited public high schools in the state. These schools were found to be teaching a total of twenty-nine different subjects, these subjects corresponding in all but a few cases to the departments and divisions of instruction usually found in our higher institutions.

The 3490 teachers included in the study were found to be teaching a total of 716 different combinations of subjects. The average number of teachers per combination was, therefore, slightly less than five. More than three-fourths of the total number of combinations consisted of three or more subjects, and 28 per cent of the total number of teachers were teaching combinations of these sizes. Almost two-thirds of the total number of combinations were taught by only a single teacher each, and 93 per cent were taught by not more than ten teachers each. That the infrequently occurring combinations not only were numerous but also affected a great many teachers is shown by the fact that more than 35 per cent of the total group of almost 3500 teachers had combinations which were taught by not more than ten teachers each. A study of the composition of the combinations revealed a strong tendency for any one subject to be combined with most, or nearly all, others. Thus, all but eight of the twenty-nine subjects were combined with twenty or more others, and nine were combined with twenty-five or more others.

It is true, of course, that certain subject combinations had very high frequencies of occurrence and that most subjects

entered far more frequently into combination with subjects than with others. The real problem, however, with respect to preparing teachers for existing combinations, occurs in connection with that great number of them which appear so infrequently. Throughout this paper, therefore, the emphasis is placed upon this phase of the matter.

The data which have just been presented give some indication of the chaotic state of affairs now existing in the realm of subject combinations. A second study reveals two sets of factors which are closely related to this chaos. The data for this study are for the year 1933-34 and they embrace a random sampling of two hundred accredited high schools in the State of Illinois which had no more than ten teachers on the staff, exclusive of the principal.

The first aspect of this study relates to the diversity of the curricular offering of these schools, as shown by an analysis of their programs of studies. The courses offered by these schools were classified into thirteen broad fields, as follows: agriculture, art, commercial subjects, English (including speech), home economics, industrial arts, Latin, mathematics, modern languages, music, physical education, social studies, and sciences. None of these two hundred schools offered courses in fewer than five of these fields and none in more than twelve. It should be noted, however, that two or more schools which were offering courses in the same number of fields were not necessarily offering them in identically the same fields. In other words, the combinations of fields in which courses were offered differed from one school to another, the total number of different combinations of fields found in these two hundred schools being seventy-three. The average number of schools per combination was, therefore, 2.74; or we might say that very roughly

every third school had a different combination.

Table I presents the distribution of these seventy-three combinations. It shows that none of the combinations had a high frequency of occurrence, and that the large majority of them occurred only very infrequently. It should be noted, however, that the infrequently occurring combinations were so numer-

geology (or physical geography), general science, physiology, physics, and zoology. Every school offered at least one of these science subjects, but none offered more than six. The total number of different combinations of science subjects found in the two hundred schools was forty-one; that is, there were approximately five schools for every combination.

TABLE I  
THE COMBINATIONS OF SUBJECT-MATTER FIELDS IN 200 HIGH SCHOOLS, DISTRIBUTED ACCORDING TO THE NUMBER OF FIELDS (f'ds) COMPRISING EACH COMBINATION AND THE NUMBER OF SCHOOLS IN WHICH IT OCCURRED.\*

Number of Schools Having the Combination	Number of Combinations Consisting of								Total Combinations	No. of Schools with Combinations of each Frequency
	5 fields	6 fields	7 fields	8 fields	9 fields	10 fields	11 fields	12 fields		
I .....	1	3	11	6	6	7	3	1	38	38
2-3 .....	0	0	1	6	7	3	3	0	20	51
4-5 .....	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	4	17
6-10 .....	0	0	3	2	3	0	0	0	8	57
11-13 .....	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	3	37
Total Combinations ..	2	5	16	15	17	11	6	1	73	..
No. of Schools with Comb. of each size	5	21	45	42	50	26	10	1	..	200

READ: Of the total of 73 combinations found in the 200 schools, 20 were found in only two or three schools each (second row). Of these 20 combinations, one consisted of seven fields, six of eight fields each and-so on. The last column shows that these 20 combinations were found in a total of 51 schools. The last two rows show that there were two combinations which consisted of five fields each, these two appearing in a total of five schools, etc.

\* The fields include agriculture, art, commercial subjects, English, home economics, industrial arts, Latin, mathematics, modern languages, music, physical education, social studies, and sciences.

ous that the total number of schools in which they were found was large. Thus, of the total of seventy-three combinations there were sixty-two each of which occurred in less than six schools, but these same sixty-two combinations were found to occur in more than half of the total of two hundred schools.

Data similar to those just presented for the broad fields are shown for the science subjects only in Table II. The two hundred schools were found to be offering eight different science subjects, as follows: biology, botany, chemistry,

The distribution of these forty-one combinations of science subjects is presented in Table II. A few combinations had relatively high frequencies of occurrence. The infrequently occurring combinations, however, were numerous and the total number of schools offering them was large. Thus, of the total of forty-one combinations, there were thirty-five, each of which occurred in less than six schools, but these same thirty-five combinations were offered in a total of seventy-four of the two hundred schools. It is evident then that al-



though two or more schools were alike in that they offered courses in the same field, they still may have differed markedly with respect to the subjects offered in that field.

It is obvious from the data just presented that these two hundred schools exhibit much lack of uniformity and standardization with respect both to the science subjects offered and to the broad

or the number of science subjects in which courses were offered.

The bearing of these conditions with respect to programs of studies upon the problem of the combinations of subjects taught by individual teachers is clear. Most of the schools included in this study had not organized enough classes in more than a very few fields, if any, to occupy the full time of any one teacher.

TABLE II

THE COMBINATIONS OF SCIENCE SUBJECTS FOUND IN TWO HUNDRED HIGH SCHOOLS DISTRIBUTED ACCORDING TO THE NUMBER OF SUBJECTS COMPRISING EACH COMBINATION AND THE NUMBER OF SCHOOLS IN WHICH IT OCCURRED.\*  
(The table is based upon the offering of both semesters.)

Number of Schools Having the Combination	Number of Combinations Consisting of						Total Combinations	No. of Schools with Combinations of each Frequency
	one subj.	two subj.	three subj.	four subj.	five subj.	six subj.		
1 .....	2	2	5	5		1	15	15
2-3 .....	2	4	6	2	1		15	36
4-5 .....		2	1	2			5	23
6-10 .....		1	1	1			3	29
17 .....			1				1	17
21 .....		1					1	21
59 .....			1				1	59
Total Combinations	4	10	15	10	1	1	41	..
No. of Schools with Comb. of each size	8	52	109	28	2	1	..	200

READ in the same manner as Table I.

\* The science subjects include biology, botany, chemistry, general science, geology (physical geography), physiology, physics, and zoology.

fields in which courses were organized. It might, in fact, be said that there is almost as much chaos in these respects as there is with respect to the combinations of subjects taught by individual teachers.

The point might be raised that this heterogeneity found with respect to the make-up of the program of studies could be due to differences in the sizes of the schools concerned. Tables III and IV are introduced to show that the size of the school is not an important factor in determining either the number of fields

Consequently when the subjects offered in any given school were assigned to teachers it was necessary to combine almost all, if not all, subjects with one or more others. Thus the nature of the combinations of subjects taught by individual teachers was determined in part by the character of the program of studies. It follows, therefore, that as long as such lack of uniformity exists among schools of the size under consideration with respect to the makeup of their programs of studies it will be impossible to solve completely the problem of simpli-

ying and standardizing teaching combinations. Furthermore, when it is noted that in many schools the peculiar characteristics of the program of studies are undoubtedly due to trivial and perhaps even unjustifiable causes, it becomes all the more apparent that an exhaustive study should be made of the

two had courses in industrial arts, and only seventy afforded opportunity for study in the field of music. Seventy-nine of these schools offered no courses at all in the field of home economics, one hundred fifty-two were not offering any modern foreign language, and forty-one taught none of the social studies other

TABLE III

TWO HUNDRED HIGH SCHOOLS DISTRIBUTED ACCORDING TO THE TOTAL NUMBER OF FIELDS IN WHICH THEY OFFERED COURSES AND THE NUMBER OF TEACHERS ON THE STAFF

Number of Teachers on the Staff	Number of Schools Offering Courses in								Total Schools
	5 fields	6 fields	7 fields	8 fields	9 fields	10 fields	11 fields	12 fields	
2-3 .....	5	11	12	5	5	1			39
4-5 .....		6	22	20	23	4			75
6-7 .....		4	5	13	14	15	2		53
8-10 .....			6	4	8	6	8	1	33
Total Schools .	5	21	45	42	50	26	10	1	200

READ: Of the 200 schools, 39 had only two or three teachers on the staff. Of these 39 schools, five offered courses in five fields, eleven in six fields, etc.

TABLE IV

TWO HUNDRED HIGH SCHOOLS DISTRIBUTED ACCORDING TO THE TOTAL NUMBER OF SCIENCE SUBJECTS WHICH THEY OFFERED AND THE NUMBER OF TEACHERS ON THE STAFF

Number of Teachers on the Staff	Number of Schools Offering						Total Schools
	one sci. subj.	two sci. subj.	three sci. subj.	four sci. subj.	five sci. subj.	six sci. subj.	
2-3 .....	3	16	16	4			39
4-5 .....	3	17	48	7			75
6-7 .....		11	33	7	2		53
8-10 .....	2	8	12	10		1	33
Total Schools .....	8	52	109	28	2	1	200

READ in the same manner as Table II.

types of offering found in our schools along with any consideration of the problem of teaching combinations.

In connection with the problem represented by the diversity of programs of studies, it should be noted that there may be raised also the problem of enrichment of the offering found in many schools. Of the two hundred schools included in this study, only two offered any work whatsoever in art, only forty-

than history. Any attempt at enriching the offering of these schools will, of course, have a bearing upon the combinations of subjects taught by individual teachers. In this connection it should be noted that if, as many writers have suggested, teachers were qualified to teach in broad fields of subject matter rather than in very limited subdivisions of such fields, it should be possible, particularly for the small schools, to offer

considerably richer programs of studies than is now possible.

The second aspect of the study under consideration relates to the distribution of the classes organized in any single field in a given school among the teachers on the staff. Data to illustrate this aspect of the study are presented in Table V. The table shows, for example, that there were ninety schools each of which had three classes in sciences, but in each of eighteen of these schools the

combinations. Much of the chaos with respect to the combinations of subjects taught by individual teachers is associated with the assignment of classes in the same field among an excessive number of teachers. Basic to both of these conditions, of course, is the fact that many teachers are prepared in only one or two aspects of such broad fields as science, social studies, and English. As a consequence, it is impossible to assign all of the courses organized in any such field

TABLE V

DISTRIBUTION OF TWO HUNDRED HIGH SCHOOLS ACCORDING TO THE NUMBER OF CLASSES EACH HAD ORGANIZED IN THE FIELD OF SCIENCE AND THE NUMBER OF TEACHERS AMONG WHOM THESE CLASSES WERE DISTRIBUTED

Number of Classes in Science	Number of Schools Distributing the Science Classes among—				Total Schools
	one teacher	two teachers	three teachers	four teachers	
1 .....	8				8
2 .....	19	18			37
3 .....	30	42	18		90
4 .....	8	21	5	1	35
5 .....		10	9	2	21
6 .....		4	1	1	6
7 .....		2	1		3
Total Schools ...	65	97	34	4	200

READ: Of the 200 schools, 37 (second row) had organized two classes in science. In 19 of these 37 schools both of the classes were taught by one and the same teacher; in the other 18 the two classes were divided between two teachers.

classes were distributed among three teachers, and in each of forty-two schools the three classes were distributed between two teachers. In general, the table reveals that in a great many schools the classes organized in the field of science were distributed among an excessive number of teachers. A tabulation of the data for English, mathematics, and social studies shows that in each of these fields also many schools distributed their classes among an unnecessarily large number of teachers. Many schools exhibited such excessive distribution in two or more of these four fields.

This condition obviously has a direct bearing upon the problem of teaching

to a minimum number of teachers, and teaching combinations of great number and variety result. On the other hand, however, it probably is true that in some schools even the preparation which the teachers now have would permit a greater concentration of the classes offered in some fields under a smaller number of teachers.

In concluding this paper, brief reference should be made to the fact that there are undoubtedly numerous factors which underly the chaotic status of teaching combinations. The problem requires further analysis to determine what the causes of the chaos are and how much importance should be attached to



them. When these causes are discovered it will probably be apparent that many of them are of such a character that they should not stand in the way of car-

rying on the task of simplifying and standardizing, at least in a measure, a condition which, at the present time, can only be described as chaotic.

## VI. CURRICULUM TRENDS IN AMERICAN SECONDARY EDUCATION

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A discussion of current curricular trends in American secondary education cannot be carried on in highly particularized terms because of the inadequacy of the data available and the indefiniteness that characterizes the term *trend* itself. What I shall present respecting changes and movements now apparently going on in our secondary school curriculum will have to be presented within certain broad categories of change which in themselves are little open to dispute even where some of the specific evidences cited may be in some doubt. The sources of one's data in this case are course of study analyses, subject enrollment statistics, national committee reports in the subject fields, the biennial reports of the United States Office of Education, the National Survey of Secondary Education, special studies of curricular trends reported by individual research workers, and the general educational literature touching the secondary school curriculum.

The broad categories of change, that is, the major trends, which the data suggest to me are as follows:

- I. The trend toward a more explicit social functionalism.
- II. The trend toward a more comprehensive social functionalism.
- III. The trend toward individualization.
- IV. The trend toward integration.
- V. The trend toward the higher mental processes.
- VI. The trend toward activism.

*I. The trend toward a more explicit social functionalism.*—This is in part a reaction against the 19th century concept of mental discipline, but still more a reflection of the practical stresses of

the times and the rise of the children of the masses to the levels of post-elementary schooling. As a trend already well under way it received its first important professional recognition and encouragement from the "Cardinal Principles" in 1918 in the statement that "In order to determine the main objectives that should guide education in a democracy, it is necessary to analyze the activities of the individual."

The trend is to be noted first in the process of cutting out the deadwood of the curriculum. By deadwood is meant such content as is not clearly called for by the uses of ordinary life. The cutting out of such content may be illustrated by the progressive exclusion of "purist junk" from the English language courses in the last twenty years. Further illustrations are offered by the reduction of English grammar to its "functional" elements, by the steady diminishing of detailed grammar content in the foreign language courses, by the reduced attention to the pre-modern history and ancient classical literature, by the cutting down of classification and morphology in elementary biology courses.

The trend is indicated also by the process of bringing in new and vital material to replace the deadwood. Thus the excisions from English are being replaced by "functional" forms of composition and by a wealth of contemporary reading material. Algebra is claiming functionality by taking on extended treatments of graphs and graphing. Geometry is finding much more room for practical applications; likewise physics and chemistry. Foreign languages are

substituting extensive reading for limited translation and also finding time to take up the contemporary life and culture of the peoples represented. In general it has become good form for the teacher of any subject no matter how academic to show its explicit reference to daily life. Even such practical subjects as manual training and home economics are finding it necessary to check more closely against what men and women actually do outside the school.

A further evidence of this general trend is the continuing introduction of new subjects and courses. Whereas in the past most new subjects appeared in the secondary school as reflections of the growing differentiation of the academic disciplines, most of the new subjects now appearing represent hitherto neglected aspects of social existence. As illustrations may be cited innumerable vocational courses, health courses, citizenship courses, and character courses.

II. *The trend toward a more comprehensive social functionalism.* — This trend is, of course, correlative with the first named. The effort to make the secondary school more explicitly functional in terms of modern life is not to be separated from the effort to bring it into wider and wider correspondence with that life. It is not only that the explicit use values of English, algebra, and history shall be given prominence but also that all the inventory of everyday activities of men and women shall find explicit representation in the school curriculum. The criterion of curriculum completeness has shifted from academic encyclopedism to the whole of extra-school living. The round of life needs has succeeded the round of the studies as the measure of curriculum adequacy.

One evidence of this trend is the universal anxiety displayed by the subject specialists that their respective subjects be not limited in their explicit reference

to life to merely one or two aspects of life. The sponsors of foreign language must insist that their subjects contribute directly to citizenship, vocation, character, and homemaking, as well as to communication skill or leisure time culture. The makers of mathematics courses are at great pains to point out the reference of their subjects to all the categories of living, not indirectly through the medium of mental discipline but immediately and practically. Printed courses of study provide any amount of evidence of this phenomenon. ✓

The trend toward a more comprehensive social functionalism is also reflected in the curricularizing of the extra-curricular activities. These activities have arisen at a timely moment, it now appears, for the purpose mainly of making good the gaps in social functionalism inevitably left by the subject curriculum. The extra-curricular activities in the minds of many are becoming the most promising instruments for achieving a training for life which is at once explicit and broad.

The general socialization trend which is at once explicit in reference and comprehensive in scope also appears to be increasingly progressive in character. While most of what I have already cited points to social efficiency as the dominant motive, there is much in the current changes to suggest a strong swing toward social melioration and reform as an added control. While as yet much of this phase of current socialization is expressed in pious and hortatory phraseology, there are not lacking curriculum developments showing practical application. Perhaps among these should be named the marked growth in the importance of the social studies as indicated by pupil registrations. This field now ranks second where at the beginning of the century it came fourth or fifth. Extensive use of socialized class-methods

constitutes another evidence curricular in effect. The organization of the student body everywhere for social responsibility and cooperative activity is still another. The widely heralded demand of educational progressives for more emphases on the fundamental concepts of democracy and their current implications is finding a good deal of response apparently in content, problems, and suggested activities of the newer courses in English and the social studies. Perhaps we may even see on the horizon of actual practice some commitment to the process of indoctrination for what is conceived to be a planned democratic society, although the clashing of terms in this statement still makes us a little dizzy.

III. *The trend toward individualization.*—In many respects this trend is the converse of those just described. In its varied manifestations one can distinguish at least three levels or stages: (a) adjustments of the curriculum in terms of amount or extent; (b) adjustments through basic differentiations of content; and (c) adjustments in terms of individualism, that is, self-realization, self-expression, personal integration. The first kind of adjustment as yet constitutes the most prevalent illustration of the individualization trend. It relates chiefly to the recognized differences of individuals in their ability to learn. Allowing a basic content regarded as minimally essential for all to acquire, it proceeds beyond this to present further content in amounts appropriate to the capacities of defined ability groups or of separate individuals. As a rule this aspect of the trend works itself out in a post-minimal differentiation of the curriculum thought to be appropriate to a few ability types or levels. Under it pupils of the same ability have the same curricular content to deal with; there are no differentiations made in terms of individual

interests or needs. In connection with this form of individualization there arise vexing administrative problems and difficulties relating to standards. Characteristic of it are various forms of so-called unit organization or assignment.

The second type of curricular individualization recognizes individual differences in interests and needs as well as in learning ability. It is reflected in the expanding program of studies and the elective system. It reinforces the trend toward a more comprehensive social functionalism in so far as that brings about the introduction of new subjects. The new subjects, however, from this point of view are needed to provide for pupil diversity and not primarily for completeness of social training. It is producing differentiated curricula, especially along lines of vocational ambition. It is even more genuinely illustrated by frequent attempts to differentiate content in all subject fields as between the bright and the dull. In this case the concept of minimal essentials is abandoned and the differentiation takes place all the way along. It is perhaps best recognized as distinctive through the emphasis upon pupil interest which it reveals.

The third type of curricular individualization is promoted by a concern for the individual as such, by the idea that the chief end of living is to become a self-expressive, progressively creative individual. It makes the resolving of personality conflicts, the integrating of experiences, individual adaptability, and fullness of individual living the objectives to be sought by the curriculum. It is, of course, closely associated with the guidance movement and tends to make guidance itself curricular. It is reflected in attempts to so organize the school activities that individuals will not be repressed, inhibited, or made sub-



ject to norms in such ways or to such degrees as may be thought unwholesome. It is reflected further in attempts to set up curricular activities in such ways as to encourage pupil choice, purposing, and the voluntary assuming of responsibility. The theory associated with it makes much of the sort of individual that is needed in a thoroughgoing democracy. All in all, both the theory and the practice of individualization at this level are as yet vague and fumbling, and the secondary curriculum in general shows very little modification as a result. Elementary school practices provide many more illustrations.

✓ IV. *The trend toward integration.*—

The trends already discussed cover the major changes that may be clearly seen going on in the secondary school curriculum today. In fact, all of the current experiments, innovations, and new deals might be included under them without stretching logic too far. Some changes, however, are assuming sufficient importance to be given separate notice even though closely associated with the trends above. The trend toward curricular integration is not to be confused with individual pupil integration referred to in the last paragraph, though there is considerable interrelation.

Four phases of the integration trend should be noted. The first may be described as the "unitizing" of subject courses. I have reference to the rapidly prevailing practice of organizing courses into a limited number of major divisions or units rather than into the traditional daily lesson assignments. These units may be indicated as major topics, as broad problems, as projects, or as objectives. As illustrations of this phase one need only refer to the widespread efforts to construct course units after the Morrison, the Dalton, or the Miller models. This curricular movement involves no new or changed subject mat-

ter in itself, but constitutes rather a problem of organization. It is strongly promoted by the additional motive of making subjects of immediate worth at all stages of their development.

The second integration phase appears in the building of broad, trunk-line, sequential, and cumulative courses extending through the secondary period and corresponding to the major subject fields. It is in the way of reaction against a long-time trend toward greater and greater splitting up of these same fields. Thus there is a pronounced effort today to integrate English, natural science, mathematics, social science, and fine arts respectively, making each a continuous and closely wrought course covering several years. Promoting it and closely associated with its growth is the idea of the comprehensive examination. In many respects it recalls an old academic ideal and the curricular thinking of the famous Committee of Ten, but it includes in addition the concept of general subjects practically developed in the junior high school. As yet in the senior high school this is mainly a college preparatory movement and is distinctly tied up with a subject scholarship emphasis. It is, of course, a movement running counter to the free election of courses in the high school.

A third phase of the integration trend is indicated by a recently renewed interest in the correlation of subjects. Illustrations appear here and there in secondary programs and special experiments. The correlations which appear most frequently are between English and the social studies, mathematics and science, foreign language and English. Correlation is sometimes effected through a composite course, sometimes through cross-subject projects, and sometimes through teacher reference.

The three phases of curricular integration so far indicated involve no nega-

tion of the subject curriculum as such. They represent merely so many modes of making subject fields integral respectively or mutually contributory. A fourth phase remains to be noted, however, which does imply a sharp break with a subject organized curriculum, if not a complete abandonment of it. I refer to the frequently proposed and sporadically attempted organization of the curriculum into large units of study or activity without recognition of or consideration for the conventional subject divisions. The life-category or area-of-living centers of organization are most often mentioned as desirable substitutes for the subject centers. There is no complete commitment to such an organization in any secondary school that I know of, but there are a number of experiments being conducted at present within certain schools and with selected students which illustrate it. The theoretical proposals made in the North Central Association's volume on curriculum reorganization are distinctly of this type. Furthermore this scheme of organization is actually developing alongside the traditional organization in many of our schools. Evidence of that may be seen in courses labelled Health and Citizenship. The vocational curricula also are in some measure illustrations of the same tendency. Further justification for calling this an aspect of the integration trend may be drawn from the spreading use of broad projects, problems, or topics drawing upon various subject fields as needed. This of course is a horizontal form of integration, but may easily develop into vertical schemes. The example of many elementary schools in this regard may prove increasingly influential in promoting such integrations at the higher level of the secondary school.

V. *The trend toward the higher mental processes.*—In dealing with this trend it is quite impossible for me to

distinguish between method and curriculum, but that the trend is observable and that it is in considerable measure curricular, I see no reason to doubt. This trend in secondary instruction appears, I think, as a reaction against what is regarded as an excessive emphasis upon memorizing, mere fact or information getting, mechanical skills and the like in our schools. It reveals a growing concern for reasoning, orderly thinking, generalization, the mastery of concepts, the drawing of inferences, and the making of applications. It appears at times to be a somewhat bold challenge to what has possibly been an over-ardent denial of the transfer of training and mental discipline. It is illustrated by courses in the social studies which emphasize the development of concepts and the understanding of broad generalizations. It is seen in some science courses constructed so as to emphasize the logic of scientific method, to provide for the pupil formulation of principles and laws. It is seen in the marked shift from rule-following and model imitation in mathematics to processes of self-directed thinking. The effort of certain leaders in secondary mathematics today to make the concept of function central in instruction is a case in point. Probably the increasing attention to the solution of originals in geometry illustrates the same thing. In English it is seen in a shifting from rigid rules and traditional authorities concerning grammar and usage to personal judgment based on critical experience. The change to various kinds of problem organizations in many courses should also be cited here. Finally the obligation noted in many new courses of study to induce pupils to work out applications provides further evidence of this general trend.

VI. *The trend toward activism.*—This trend has already been implied in connection with some of the preceding



discussion, but it deserves specific mention. It is in the main an upward reaching of a trend which is now becoming pronounced at the elementary and, especially, the primary school levels. It presents two phases, as I see it: (a) activities as facilitating stipulated learnings, and (b) activities as intrinsically educative. It is almost exclusively the first phase that we find in the secondary school at present, and no great evidence even of that. Wherever teachers seek to promote the learning of the prescribed subject matter by tying it up with interesting projects or possibly by giving it the appearance of a genuine and vital activity itself, we see this phase of activism illustrated. It does not call for any marked change in educational objectives nor in the basic content of the curriculum; it merely recognizes the advantage of motivating study through enterprises involving a good deal more overactivity than is traditionally associated with that process. The project or the activity form is not regarded as of any particular value in itself, but only as an instrument of motivation. As such, a limited number of secondary schools and teachers are making use of it today.

The second phase of the trend toward activism, I suspect, would be hard to find in high schools at present, though instances of it in elementary schools are numerous. In this phase the activity, project, or unit of work, however it may be named, is regarded as the central educative value and the subject learnings that may grow out of it as so many valuable by-products. The theory here is that a well conceived, well organized project develops abilities and traits that are of primary importance in the cultivation of personality and social adjustment. Out of such projects come initiative, creativeness, goal setting, planning, cooperative techniques, persistence, critical attitude, and the pro-

gressive reconstruction of experience that is the central fact of all sound education. It is argued further in support of such activism that the incidental learnings of information, mental techniques, habits and skills regarded as socially desirable are more real, more ready for use, and more permanently acquired than when directly acquired under more conventional schooling. As I noted above, however, I find it practically impossible to cite illustrative examples of this phase of activism at the secondary level.

In a somewhat gradual and subtle way, however, the trend toward activism is serving to correct what may be our rather exaggerated view of the secondary school subjects as accumulations of relatively static and stored up facts, principles, formulas, and processes. Those who are committed to subjects, first, last, and always, are at considerable pains these days to point out that a school subject properly conceived is not inert, is not a lifeless deposit, is not so much matter set before the pupil to be assimilated, but is in reality decidedly dynamic both in origin and present value. A subject, they say now, is vital racial activity of tested worth and so organized as to be economically transmuted, as it were, into the everyday activities of the contemporary thinker, worker, citizen, and man. A school subject, they say, is after all nothing but a model, tested activity or complex of activities, the mastery of which adds direction, force, and general effectiveness to otherwise waste motion.

Such are the present trends in the curriculum of the secondary school as I see them. In conclusion, I would like to mention one more matter, to suggest what is perhaps the most important trend of all. I am thinking of the changing conception of the curriculum itself. One can no longer think of the second-



ary school curriculum as made up of learnings, carried on in the classroom or in preparation for classroom recitations. The objectives of secondary education have become so broad, so varied in implication, that little else than the whole organized life of the school seems sufficient to serve them. Thus in the thinking of a host of administrators, teachers, and educationalists today the secondary school curriculum is made up

of all the experiences which pupils realize in a systematic and intentful way in the course of the school session. The subject curriculum is only one part; the extracurricular activities are another part; pupil control is another part; the very plant and its equipment may be still other parts. In so far as the school in any particular is consciously used to promote educational values it is curricular.

#### VII. TRENDS IN THE SUBJECT-MATTER PREPARATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL TEACHERS

WILLIAM S. GRAY, *University of Chicago*

We stand at the crossroads today in respect to the preparation of secondary school teachers. One route follows traditional practices with the resulting inadequacies to which Dean Benner has referred. A second route which seeks to avoid the limitations of the first is now under construction. The aim of its builders is to provide improved curriculums by which students may prepare to assume intelligently the varied responsibilities which society delegates to teachers today. To follow the former route is undoubtedly the easier alternative. To pursue the latter will require intensive studies of the function and needs of prospective teachers in the new age and the development of curriculums which will insure the necessary understandings and controls. Through the appointment of its Committee on the Subject-matter Preparation of Teachers, this Association has expressed definite interest in the problems and possibilities of the latter route.

At the time of its appointment, the Committee was asked to study intensively the nature and scope of the academic preparation needed to insure efficiency in teaching at the secondary-school level. As one of several preliminary steps, the Committee made a survey of significant trends, or, more

accurately stated, recent innovations, in curriculums for prospective teachers. The report which follows presents important findings of that study. It is based on information secured from reports of published surveys, such as the National Survey of Teacher Education, from bulletins of higher institutions engaged in the preparation of teachers, from reports of national committees, and from studies reported in periodical literature. Inasmuch as we are concerned chiefly on this occasion with the academic preparation of teachers, only incidental reference will be made to strictly professional training.

The most impressive fact revealed by the study is that higher institutions in various sections of the country are seriously questioning the adequacy for prospective teachers of the narrow and highly specialized curriculums advised in the past. Indeed, many of them are engaged in developing, or have already announced, new curriculums based upon intensive studies of the general and specific needs of teachers. The significant objectives of such curriculums are: a broad understanding of the major fields of learning; sufficiently wide cultural contacts to insure a truly liberal education; capacity to analyze and interpret current social, economic, industrial and

political conditions and ability to participate intelligently in the responsibilities of citizenship; the scholarly mastery of at least two teaching fields; the professional understandings, attitudes and controls essential for success in teaching; and sufficiently broad interests and tastes to insure rich and satisfying lives.

Unfortunately, the curriculums offered for teachers in many institutions are far less broadly conceived. Some provide almost exclusively for the cultural needs of students; others emphasize with equal vigor either research or professional interests. Far too frequently, the personal needs of students and their preparation for intelligent citizenship are sadly neglected. It is very encouraging, therefore, that many colleges and universities are now examining critically the curriculums pursued by prospective teachers and are reconstructing them in the light of the broader objectives they should serve.

A second notable trend is illustrated in those institutions which organize the total curriculum in terms of several distinct but closely related units or sequences. The basic assumption underlying this practice is that each unit serves unique and significant purposes. Some institutions differentiate curriculum materials primarily in terms of the level or degree of advancement represented; for example, lower and upper division courses. Others differentiate them chiefly in terms of the professional objectives served; for example, professional background courses, professional integrating courses, and professionalized subject-matter courses. Several institutions which have recently reorganized curriculums for teachers have adopted four more or less distinctive units, the aims of which are to provide respectively a broad general education, specialized academic preparation for the type of teaching service to be rendered, sup-

plementary cultural or liberal contacts, and essential professional preparation. We are chiefly concerned here with the first three of the four types of preparation provided.

Of primary importance in the preparation of teachers for any level of service is a comprehensive general education. If properly conceived, it not only prepares the individual for intelligent participation in contemporary life but also provides the background essential for specialized academic and professional study. Experience shows clearly that a part of the failure in the past in preparing high-school teachers has resulted from an attempt to begin specialized study before an adequate background has been acquired. Very few question today the wisdom of some general education at the college level before specialization begins. The chief issue relates to the nature and amount of such preparation. There is wide agreement, however, that the content and scope of general education for teachers differ very little, if at all, from that for students who plan to specialize in other fields. But in the case of teachers, it has peculiar significance. Its objectives and content are similar to those toward which public secondary education is now directed. It is therefore indispensable for those who will be charged with the responsibility of helping children and young people to similar acquirements.

As indicated a moment ago, widely divergent views prevail concerning the nature and scope of general education. The survey revealed, however, considerable agreement on certain fundamental issues among institutions which have recently reorganized their curriculums at the junior-college level. Because of the significance of such trends in respect to the preparation of teachers, they will be summarized briefly at this point.

1. There is wide agreement that the extension of general education at the college level should be directed toward sound scholarship and a cultural background in the major areas of human experience.

2. As a rule, the courses offered comprise broad fields rather than narrow segments of subject matter; they contribute primarily to an understanding of basic concepts, principles and generalizations, rather than to the mere acquisition of facts and information; they promote appreciation of what each major field has contributed to civilization and is contributing today to an understanding of personal and persistent social problems; they acquaint students with the methods of thinking involved in the study of important fields and promote growth, resourcefulness and power in applying them independently; and they broaden and deepen interests and provide an impetus to further study. Such understandings and attitudes are obviously essential in preparing both for teaching and for intelligent citizenship.

3. But current discussions of general education do not limit us to a conception that is based solely on subjects or fields of knowledge. Many contend that general education consists primarily in acquaintance with and facility in basic disciplines. By a discipline is meant a type of intellectual experience "involved in a successful or fruitful approach to a problem of knowledge." According to President Wriston, the discipline of precision, appreciation, hypothesis and reflective synthesis are of major importance. Other disciplines have been suggested through the use of such terms as "methods of getting facts," "scientific attitude," "tolerant attitude," "inducing healthy skepticism," and "leading the learner to seek the truth in an unprejudiced manner." The most ardent advocates of such disciplines go so far as to maintain that the nature of the subject-matter used in developing them is of minor importance. If this view predominates, curriculums for teachers will be greatly weakened. Whereas prospective teachers need vigorous training in basic disciplines, they also need a broad understanding of the major fields of learning. Economy of time and effort dictates that both types of values be attained, in so far as possible, through the same medium. Furthermore, it seems logical to assume that disciplines essential in life in general and in professional pursuits should be cultivated to a large extent in the same areas in which they must ultimately function.

4. Attainments in the field of general edu-

cation are determined with increasing frequency on a qualitative basis. Furthermore, reasonable competence in this field is required before admission to specialized curriculums. Such a requirement is especially desirable in the case of prospective teachers. Certainly those who are unable to demonstrate competence at the level of general education should not be admitted to the ranks of the intellectual leaders of young people who are striving toward satisfactory attainments in the same general field. Additional requirements set up by many institutions which prepare teachers include proficiency in oral and written expression, desirable study habits, attitudes and interests, and essential personal and social qualities. The fact is emphasized repeatedly that final decisions should be based on the continuous study of the achievements, needs and characteristics of students, as well as on more or less comprehensive examinations. Through the wise application of qualitative standards, it is hoped that the general caliber of those admitted to specialized curriculums for teachers may be materially raised.

The changes which are taking place in the nature and scope of specialized curriculums for teachers are as radical as those at the level of general education. One of the basic purposes of such curriculums is to secure the breadth and depth of preparation essential for effective teaching at the secondary-school level. But the definition of such preparation for prospective teachers presents one of the most challenging problems which curriculum makers face today. The difficulty is accentuated by the rapid changes which are occurring in the nature, scope and organization of the secondary-school curriculum. The fact is widely recognized, however, that because of the nature of the demands made upon them, teachers have usually been notably deficient in the breadth of their preparation.

Various measures have been adopted by different institutions to overcome this deficiency. Some degree of breadth is assured in those institutions which require reasonable competence in all the major fields comprising general educa-



tion. Additional breadth is now provided in many institutions through sequences in broad fields, such as biology or the social sciences, rather than in specific subjects or narrow aspects of important fields. Furthermore, each prospective teacher is commonly required to pursue advanced sequences in at least two fields. In some institutions, the two sequences receive about equal emphasis; in other institutions, one sequence takes precedence over the other, as indicated by the use of such terms as "principal" and "secondary" fields of specialization. As a rule, the two fields selected are functionally related, for example, the physical sciences and mathematics, or the social sciences and English. The justification for the types of expansion described arises from the actual demand made upon secondary-school teachers today.

In defining the specific nature and content of specialized curriculums that insure breadth, definite effort is made to include units which promote those understandings essential in teaching at the secondary school level. The fact is clearly recognized that traditional sequences of a narrow and highly specialized type are no longer satisfactory, if they ever were. Accordingly, detailed studies are under way in a number of institutions to determine the subject matter preparation most appropriate for prospective teachers in each major field. As a rule, this responsibility is delegated to a committee consisting of representatives of the various subjects and fields involved, curriculum specialists and capable teachers at the secondary school level, and representatives of the Department or School of Education. As a result of the studies and deliberations of such committees, new curriculums have been developed which often cross departmental and even divisional boundaries, new courses have been provided by

many institutions, and old ones modified to meet specific needs. The fact has been clearly demonstrated that vastly improved curriculums for prospective teachers can be provided when an institution attacks the problem vigorously with open mind.

The value of adequate depth of preparation is also clearly recognized in recent efforts to reconstruct curriculums for teachers. The view has been expressed repeatedly that the contacts provided in each field shall promote growth toward sound scholarship, including a knowledge of its basic facts, concepts and principles, an understanding of its relationships to the field of knowledge as a whole, to related fields, and to the problems of contemporary life, a critical attitude toward its fundamental theories or philosophies, a clear recognition of its important methods of thinking and reasonable efficiency in their use, and ability to find, assemble and interpret material relating to specific problems. Accordingly, less value is attached than formerly by many institutions to the usual lecture form of college instruction and greater importance is attached to special lectures that open up problems or make unique contributions to directed readings and discussions, to the independent study of problems by students, and to supervised and independent field work.

Depth of preparation is further promoted in most institutions by pursuing at least one field, or section of it, to its frontier, thus acquiring a mastery of its logic of organization and of its processes of growth and expansion. Indeed, opportunity is provided for students to participate in the intensive study of frontier problems and to experience the thrill of intellectual discovery. Such participation is essential if they are to follow intelligently during subsequent years the important developments in their

respective fields of specialization. The statement should be added that the basic purpose of frontier study by prospective teachers is to insure greater depth of understanding, rather than to develop the controls essential in laboratory research.

In order that the broader aims of specialized study may be attained, various institutions insist that the work taken shall be continuous in thought and organization and inherently sequential. This principle recognizes the importance of relating and integrating experience. Accordingly, definite steps are now recommended in each course which will bring experience into natural and significant relationships. This requires a clear recognition on the part of each instructor of the relation of his course to the sequence as a whole and willingness to present it so that its relationships and significance are clear. As a further aid in unifying and clarifying thinking, many institutions provide a final seminar in which basic problems covering the field as a whole are considered.

No statement has been made thus far concerning the amount or length of specialized subject matter preparation for teaching. Current practice is dictated largely by quantitative requirements of two types. The first is the length of sequences required for the bachelor's degree. The second is the minimum amount of preparation required by state and regional certificating agencies. The fact is recognized that neither of these standards has great validity. As a result, several institutions are experimenting with the possibility of developing qualitative standards of achievement in specific fields appropriate for prospective teachers. The progress made thus far indicates clearly that attainments in any field, the completion of prescribed curricula, and approval for teaching can be measured ultimately in terms of a student's progress in acquiring the un-

derstandings and controls demanded by the professional work for which he is preparing. Through the application of such measures, it should be possible in the future to determine more accurately than at present the probable length of specialized preparation and also to select teachers capable of genuine intellectual leadership at the secondary school level.

Paralleling specialized preparation in specific fields, increasingly wide provision is made for prospective teachers to continue stimulating and enriching cultural contacts. This practice is supported by four lines of argument. First, such contacts are essential if students acquire a truly liberal education. Second, the teacher's life must be spent increasingly, as American culture improves, in the society of the educated. Third, "Society has a right to expect a teacher to be, if not the best, at least a dependable representative of modern culture in the community in which he works and lives." And fourth, the school rightly expects that each teacher will contribute generously to the cultural environment of its pupils. A foundation for modern culture is established in the courses comprising general education. It is greatly extended through many courses provided in specialized sequences, particularly those relating to the humanities and the appreciational arts. In addition, frequent opportunities are provided for those not specializing in given fields to acquire broader and richer contacts in them. The chief aim of such courses is not to master fields of learning. It is rather to open up new vistas of understanding and enjoyment, to extend interests, and to initiate habits which will continue to broaden and enrich life throughout one's professional career.

The discussion thus far shows clearly that very significant changes have been

proposed, or indeed introduced, recently in the academic preparation of secondary school teachers. They grow out of a clear recognition of the fact that teachers must be broadly and specifically prepared for the varied responsibilities which society delegates to them today. The development of this new attitude is a notable step forward. Before adequate programs of preparation can be provided, further intensive studies of the function and needs of prospective teachers are necessary. With these points in mind, the committee will continue its work during the coming year. As a result of intensive study and experimentation in various sections of the country, it is hoped that rapid progress can be made in the near future in developing improved patterns of subject matter preparation for secondary school teachers.



*Chicago Junior colleges*  
*North central association of colleges and secondary schools*

✓  
REPORTS OF COMMITTEES IN CHARGE OF THE SUPERVISION OF  
VARIOUS EXPERIMENTS APPROVED BY THE ASSOCIATION<sup>1</sup> ✓

✓ I. CHICAGO JUNIOR COLLEGES EXPERIMENTS ✓

YOUR advisory committee on the Chicago Junior Colleges spent April 4 and 5 in visiting these institutions and in conferring with teachers, students, and members of the administrative staff of the Chicago schools. The three colleges have an enrollment of approximately four thousand students at the present time. Of this student body, only about one hundred and fifty are completing the graduation requirements this year. Therefore, a marked increase in enrollment may be expected in another year.

The colleges have organized their curricula so that the following subjects are required of all students: English composition, one year; humanities, one year; social science, two years; biological science, one year; and physical science, one year. In each field the courses are of a comprehensive nature rather than the usual specialized courses offered by departments. In all of these courses, except English composition, use is made of large group instruction. Lectures are offered three times a week and are supplemented by relatively small discussion groups meeting once a week. The largest lecture groups consist of four to six hundred students. In addition to the comprehensive courses, a considerable number of specialized courses are offered.

A department of examinations has been established for the three colleges. The director of this department in co-operation with faculty representatives will prepare the examinations for the comprehensive courses for the three in-

stitutions. These examinations will not be prepared and scored for the purpose of determining a student's fitness for advanced work but rather to determine whether or not he shall receive such credentials as the junior colleges may issue. Institutions to which students may apply for further study will be supplied with a copy of the examinations used and the ranks of the students in terms of percentiles.

Your committee was very favorably impressed with the progress that has been made during the six or seven months these colleges have been in operation. Students and faculty in the main appeared to be going about their work with enthusiasm and intelligence. One cannot help but be impressed by the assistance that thousands of young persons are getting for their responsibilities as citizens of this community through the work of these institutions. In the conference that the committee held with Superintendent Bogan, members of his staff, and the deans of the colleges the following were suggested as means of still further raising the standard of work that is being done:

1. Large group instruction places a great deal of responsibility on the students. No one questions the desirability of this procedure, but when it is done adequate provision should be made for educational and vocational counseling of students. A beginning has been made, but it should be strengthened and extended as rapidly as possible.

2. The recruiting of a staff competent to use effectively methods adapted to large group instruction is difficult. The present requirements for certification of teachers in the junior colleges make it difficult if not impossible for the Superintendent of Schools to secure the

<sup>1</sup> Made to the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education, April 11, 1935.—THE EDITOR.

services of competent teachers from other school systems or institutions. Your committee believes that it would mean an increased opportunity to improve the quality of the work being done if the Superintendent were to be given an adequate salary schedule and a free hand to select outstanding junior college teachers regardless of whether or not they held certificates to teach in Chicago.

3. The library is a very important element in the work of any good college, but in institutions making use of large group instruction its significance cannot be overestimated. Both with respect to printed resources and to staff is this true. Marked progress has been made in developing libraries at each of the institutions, but more should be done both in making provisions for the needed materials and the securing of staffs adequate in size and thor-

oughly familiar with the purposes and methods used by the colleges.

The committee believes that Superintendent Bogan and his associates have made considerable progress in attempting the solution of the city's educational problem at the junior-college level, but in the same sentence it urges them to attack with renewed vigor the three problems that have been mentioned above.

It is recommended that the supervising committee be continued.

THOMAS B. BENNER  
ERNEST O. MELBY  
GEO. A. WORKS, *Chairman*

## II. THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO EXPERIMENT

This is the second report of the joint committee of the Higher and the Secondary Commissions on an experiment involving coordination between the last two years of the University High School and the two-year University College of the University of Chicago.

During the past year, a curriculum committee has continued its study of the materials of instruction which make up the program of the four-year period represented by this experiment. Subcommittees are devoting their attention to the various courses which make up this program. In the meanwhile, a special subcommittee is engaged in further study of the entire four-year period considered as a unit.

During the academic year 1933-34, some fifteen carefully selected high school seniors were admitted to one or two of the survey courses of the University College. The total number of such courses taken by this group was twenty. Since the report of one year ago, all of these students have taken, and passed, their respective comprehensive examinations with a scholastic record better than the average of the general student body of the University College.

In the fall of 1934, the first group of students, representing what would formerly have been the junior class of the University High School, entered upon the first year of work of the new four-year unit. Each of these students has been required to take a course in English Composition, a course in Early Civilizations in which special emphasis is placed on their cultural history, and a course in Economic Society. The teaching of English literature is this year an integral part of the course in Early Civilizations. These students were permitted, also, to elect as many as three additional courses from a list which includes biology, foundations of physical science, third year mathematics, third year foreign language, and courses in art, music, literature, and industrial arts.

Next year, the majority of these students will take required courses in English composition, western civilization, and American political institutions. They will continue their study of English literature which will be closely integrated with the course in western civilization but will probably be taught by staff teachers in English. It is felt that the experience of the first year in

*Chicago University*

the course in early civilizations has already revealed that appropriate attainments in English literature are not adequately achieved when a single instructor is made responsible for the attainment of objectives in both fields. In addition to these basic courses, the second year students will make elections from a list of courses which include second year biology, second year physical science, fourth year mathematics, fourth year foreign language, and courses in art, music, literature, and industrial arts.

A selected group of these second year students will be permitted, next fall, to substitute the general college course in the humanities for the course in western

civilization, in social science for American political institutions, in physical sciences for the second year of high school physical science, or in the biological sciences for the second year of high school biology.

The program of this new four-year unit is in a process of evolution and is subject to modification as active study and growing experience indicate the need. It is, accordingly, recommended that the committee be continued for further report to the Association of the new developments which may be expected.

THOMAS E. BENNER, *Chairman*  
A. E. MacQuarrie

### III. THE COLORADO STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE EXPERIMENT

The Committee appointed to supervise the experiment which is being conducted in the secondary school of the Colorado State Teachers College recently paid a visit to the school and spent a day discussing the experiment with the Director and members of the staff. Classes in the various departments were visited. This school is organized on the undivided six-year plan. Students, however, are not classified according to the conventional organization in grades, but are placed in courses and activities where they are best adjusted in terms of abilities, needs, and interests. The materials of instruction are organized into six departments. There are six one-hour periods in the day, and all students carry a six-hour daily schedule. Graduation from the school does not depend upon the accumulation of credits nor upon the time spent, but depends rather upon the achievement of the pupil in terms of his ability. The usual length of time required for a student to achieve the objectives that have been set up is six years.

The Committee found that the entire faculty appears to be cognizant of the objectives that have been set up and

much enthusiasm was manifested in the development of materials and techniques that will insure the ultimate success of the experiment. There appears to be a forward-looking, sane attitude on the part of the staff; and it was apparently fully conscious of the difficulties to be encountered in the selection and treatment of materials of instruction.

The Committee was particularly impressed with the program for the analysis of students' abilities and their placement in departments and activities. A composite basis for forming adequate judgments in the placement of students has been worked out. Five criteria are being used for this purpose: (1) a reading test, (2) the American Council Psychological Examination, (3) college achievement tests, (4) language-usage tests, and (5) teachers' ratings. Plans are in process of evolution whereby each department will maintain cumulative records of each student, so that it will be possible for the science department to give an accurate description of a student's development in this department in regard to scientific attitude, problem-solving ability, etc.

*Colorado  
State  
College of  
Education,  
 Greeley*



Another aspect of their program of guidance aims to assist in directing the students for future careers. Because of the complete records available, certain students will be recommended to continue their work in preparation for a technical and professional career. Other students will be advised to continue their general education in a liberal arts college. The achievement of another group within their secondary school career will be the basis for advising them that their opportunities for future success will undoubtedly be greatest if they will continue their education in a trade school. The careful study of the abilities, attitudes, and interests of each student through his life in the secondary school furnishes a rather adequate basis for guidance of this type, even though it might appear that a great responsibility rests on the school in endeavoring to shape a student's future career.

The attitude in the student classrooms was informal but purposeful. Work was conducted on the laboratory plan in all subjects. Students have much freedom to

work on their own initiative but there appeared to be little wasted effort—much less than one would ordinarily find in the conventionally organized secondary school.

The Committee was much impressed with the progress that has been made in the clarification of objectives in this experiment during the past year. It recommends to the Association that approval be given to the continuation of this experiment. It will require several years to secure adequate data to validate the efficiency of the reorganization. At the present time, techniques are not available for the exact measurement of the results of such a comprehensive experiment, but the objectives are so definite and the organization of the program is so completely in harmony with these objectives that the experiment should eventually have influence in the modification of procedures in secondary education.

Respectfully submitted,

C. R. MAXWELL, *Chairman*

H. H. MILLS

F. P. O'BRIEN

#### IV. THE KANSAS CITY, MISSOURI, EXPERIMENT

On the basis of visitation by a member of the Committee on March 25, 1935, the Committee appointed by the North Central Association to supervise the experiment at the Northeast High School of Kansas City, Missouri, submits the following report:

Basically, this experiment is an attempt to accomplish in three years the work which is ordinarily done in the four-year period represented by the junior and senior years of high school plus the junior college. This involves the elimination of duplication and appropriate revision of the curriculum. The authorization of the experiment by the North Central Association specified "that the technical standards having to do with units and hours of credit may be

disregarded, but that academic achievement represented by such units and hours of credit will in all respects be maintained."

It was reported a year ago that of the 38 students who were graduated in June, 1933, in the general education curriculum, 24 entered the junior year of a college or university in the fall of 1933. Fourteen of these 24 made higher average grades during the first year of their college or university work than they had secured during their three years in the experimental group at Northeast High School. Ten of the 24 made lower grades. Seventeen of the 24 returned to college in the fall of 1934. Twelve of these 17 made higher grades in the first semester of the college year 1934-35

*Kansas  
City,  
Missouri  
Northeast  
High  
School*

than they made at Northeast High School.

Seventy-one students were graduated from the experimental program in June, 1934, of whom 54 had been enrolled in the general education program. Of these 54, 20 entered the junior year of a college or university in the fall of 1934. Five made higher academic averages during this first semester than they had made at Northeast High School and 15 made lower averages.

The Northeast Junior College does not recommend its graduates to other institutions unless their academic average has been "C" or better. Nevertheless, 6 of the 24 graduates in the Class of 1933 who entered other institutions that fall presented for admission academic averages below "C." Only 2 of the graduates in the Class of 1934 presented academic averages below "C."

Five of the 24 1933 graduates made scholastic averages below "C" as juniors at another institution, and of the 17 still registered in the fall of 1934, 2 made averages of less than "C" for the first semester. Seven of the 20 1934 graduates made academic averages of less than "C" at the institutions in which they were registered as juniors in the first semester of 1934-35.

In an effort to ascertain the reason for this difference, several factors were investigated. It was found, for example, that 14 of the 24 in the 1933 group came from the upper half of their graduating class, and 10 from the lower half. It was found further that test results would seem to indicate the slight superiority of the 1934 group over the 1933 group.

The Principal of the Northeast High School offered the suggestion that the contrast between the performance of the 1933 graduates and that of the 1934 graduates might be explained by the difference in their economic situation. He pointed out that all 9 of the 1934

graduates who are now enrolled at the University of Missouri are almost wholly dependent on their own earnings to maintain themselves at that institution, in spite of the fact that they have been granted exemption from tuition charges. It is probable that this is a partial explanation.

The Committee believes that the Kansas City authorities should be urged to give more attention to personnel advice of the high-school students and the junior-college students. In some instances, it appears that students have been over-urged to enter the junior college. Certainly caution should be exercised not to draw into the experiment other students than those who are personally interested in the type of program which is being subjected to experimentation.

In the second place, it is the belief of the Committee that more attention should be given to revision of the content of the curriculum. The Committee recognizes that the teaching loads of the members of the faculty are unusually heavy at the present time, but the experiment of amalgamating the upper years of the high school with the junior college is one which requires the most careful consideration of curriculum material.

The Committee finds that a problem of school organization of major importance has emerged as the experiment in Kansas City has gone forward. The group of students directly involved in this experiment are less unified than they would be if they were in a separate institution. In other words, the experimental unit is somewhat submerged in the large high-school unit of which it is a part. The result is great difficulty in maintaining in the experimental unit the esprit de corps which the Committee believes to be essential to the success of the experiment.

The experiment has been going for-

ward long enough so that it is the belief of the Committee that the supervision of the North Central Association should terminate at the end of the next academic year. At that time full evidence will be available with regard to the success of the experiment and the Association should take action approving the experiment or otherwise as the evidence dictates. It is accordingly recommended that the Kansas City authorities be

notified that the North Central Association will conduct an intensive survey of the experiment and its success before the next annual meeting of the Association and will make a final report at the meeting of the Association in 1936.

Respectfully submitted,

THOMAS E. BENNER

LEONARD V. KOOS

CHARLES H. JUDD, *Chairman*

### V. THE LITTLE ROCK JUNIOR COLLEGE EXPERIMENT

The purpose of this experiment is to explore some of the possibilities of securing a more effective curriculum articulation on the senior high school and junior college levels by reducing the period of pre-junior-college preparation of superior pupils. As described in the original action of the Association, Little Rock Junior College was granted permission in 1933 for an indefinite period to admit to its freshman class a selected group of students who have not completed the usual unit requirements for graduation from the Little Rock Senior High School. The conditions governing the selection and transfer of these students have previously been outlined in the report presented a year ago.<sup>1</sup>

Two groups of students who did not meet the technical entrance requirements have since the inauguration of this experiment in September, 1933, been admitted to the Junior College. One of these groups consisting of forty students was admitted in September, 1933, and another group consisting of seventeen non-graduates was admitted in September, 1934. The experiment as a whole has been carefully planned and the results are being scientifically scrutinized by the control group technique in order that academic achievement records may be compared.

<sup>1</sup> NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY, IX (October, 1934), 235-49.

#### ACADEMIC RECORDS OF EXPERIMENTAL AND OF CONTROL GROUPS

*Groups Entering September, 1933.* Data compiled a year ago indicated that for twenty-two equivalent pairs, selected from each of the two groups, the grade point average for the first semester for the experimental group was 1.56 and for the control group it was 1.59. The experimental group carried an average load of 15.3 semester hours, while the control group carried an average load of 15.4 semester hours.

During the second semester of last year the results of these same twenty-two equivalent pairs were:

	Average Number of Hours Carried	Grade Point Average
Experimental Group ..	15.7	1.67
Control Group .....	15.2	1.62

For the first semester, 1934-35, ten of the above twenty-two equivalent pairs remained intact. It was, therefore, possible to make a further though somewhat limited comparison of the scholastic records of the two groups on the sophomore year level. These comparative results were:

	Average Number of Hours Carried	Grade Point Average
Experimental Group ..	15.3	2.02
Control Group .....	15.4	1.73

*Little  
Rock,  
Arkansas  
Junior  
College*



*Groups Entering September, 1934.* As stated above, a group of seventeen students who did not meet the technical entrance requirements was admitted to the Junior College last September. On the basis of test data similar to those used in the arrangement of equivalent pairs for the 1933 group,<sup>1</sup> seventeen equivalent pairs have been set up for evaluating the relative scholastic attainment of this group. In the formation of these seventeen pairs, each one of the special students has been paired with three other freshmen admitted with the required number of entrance units.

The scholastic records of these paired groups for the first semester, 1934-35, were:

	Average Number of Hours Carried	Grade Point Average
Experimental Group ..	15.5	1.72
Control Group .....	14.1	1.51

The median age of the experimental group as of September 10, 1934, was

16.4 years and the median age of the control group was 17.5 years.

#### CONCLUSION

The results of the experiment thus far rather conclusively prove that academic achievement standards have suffered no adverse effects by the admission of these special groups. They also tend to show that the experimental groups did not experience any appreciable handicaps in their college work by skipping the senior year of the high school course.

It must be distinctly understood, however, that these experimental groups consisted of a highly selected or superior type of students. Furthermore, notwithstanding the fact that the equivalent pairs were carefully matched at the beginning of the experiment, it is quite likely, due to the differential in age levels, that the experimental groups were potentially superior to the control groups on the basis of native ability.

ELMER COOK

H. G. HOTZ, *Chairman*

<sup>1</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 236.

#### VI. THE TULSA CURRICULUM PROJECT

The Tulsa curriculum project being supervised for the North Central Association by this committee, was put into actual operation in September, 1933, at the seventh grade level. At the present time, classes involved in this project are being conducted in four junior high schools with approximately two hundred fifty eighth graders who began their work as seventh graders in September, 1933, and an equal number of seventh graders who began their work in September, 1934. The general purposes and plan of the whole project are set out in the *Plan for the Eight Year Progressive Education Experimental Study in the Tulsa Public Schools*, which follows this report; since this project is going forward in Tulsa not only under the supervision of the North Central Association, but as part of the Progressive Education

Association's nation-wide experimental study.

At the present time and on the junior high school level, Tulsa is attempting to make it possible for each child to work in each subject-matter field at approximately the level which standard achievement tests indicate he is capable of working without changing his grade placement. This should mean that by the time he is a ninth grader—that is by the time he has been in the public schools for nine years exclusive of kindergarten—he will have gone far beyond what is conventionally considered to be ninth grade school work. He will then be ready to accomplish in the senior high school the purposes of the project having to do with the matter of college preparation.

Tulsa is seeking to accomplish the above purposes in the junior high school

*Tulsa, Oklahoma--  
Public Schools*

largely in the three ways described in the following paragraphs.

1. *Better Integration and Greater Continuity.*—Instruction is less departmentalized than in the conventional junior high school program. There is more effort to keep different teachers in touch with each other so that there is some relationship between what is being taught by one teacher in one class and another in another class. This is especially true in the fields of social studies and English, and of mathematics and science, where the work in some schools in the fields of social studies and English is taught by one teacher in consecutive periods. The same is true of mathematics and science. This means that the education of these children is the responsibility of a fewer number of teachers than would be the case were they in the regular classes of these schools, and the teacher is invited and urged to assume a larger responsibility for the child's education than would be the case were she only the teacher of English or of social studies. In fact, she is under no feeling of compulsion to confine her influence on his education within the combined fields of English and social studies, or mathematics and science. Every effort has been made to make her feel that she is teaching these children what these children ought to be taught, even if it exceeds the conventional limits of these broadened fields of study. In addition to this, these groups carry forward the same teachers from year to year in these broad fields, so that the teacher who taught English and social studies to them in the seventh year is, in most cases leading them this year in their study in these fields. This, of course, necessitates a broader training for teachers than typical teacher-training courses now provide. The school has attempted to overcome this shortage for the purposes of this project by selecting teachers from among its best for use in these classes. Some of the rest of the shortage is made up for by the feeling of personal responsibility which these teachers come to have when they realize how fully the education of these children rests in their hands. To visualize at a glance the difference that this change in practice makes possible, one has but to see that in a three-year junior high school with semi-annual promotions, it was perfectly possible for a child's education in the fields of English and social studies to have been in the hands of six English teachers and six social studies, or a total of twelve teachers for the three years. Under this plan, it is perfectly possible that one teacher will be responsible

for what twelve teachers working in two departments were previously responsible. Tulsa contends that this procedure in the hands of good teachers not only makes for better integration but for greater continuity of educational program than was at all likely under the regular plan of school organization and operation.

2. *More Vital Subject Matter.*—Being given the freedom of action and the increased responsibility indicated in (1) above, there is a better chance that more subject matter, actually vital to the child, will be incorporated in the program of instruction. Moreover, as is indicated above, the junior high school period is being utilized for the present as an adjustment period by which the child attains the level of work of which he is capable as evidenced by his achievement records. When Tulsa inaugurates this program at the third grade level, as is contemplated, this adjustment will be partly taken care of during the elementary school period instead of being left largely at the junior high school period, as now, but until such time as it is possible and feasible to initiate this program in the elementary schools this adjustment period will largely fall into the three years of the junior high school. Tulsa maintains that, as a child approaches the level upon which he is able to work, the subject matter does become more vital to him. It is, therefore, possible to achieve the vitalization of subject matter which comes about by closer integration of the work in various departments as described in (1) above and also that which results from work which really offers a challenge to the ability of the pupil.

3. *More Intelligent Adaptation to Individual Capacities, Needs, and Interests.*—This adaptation to the individual is implied and forecast by what has been said in (1) and (2) above. In spite of careful selection of the most able students for these groups, there are, of course, great differences between the individuals thereof. Tulsa regards these children as falling into two groups, with remarkable variation in these groups. One of these is called "superior," meaning by that the all-round development possible because of superior intelligence, home environment, and cultural background. The other group is thought of as a gifted group, every member of which has remarkable talent within a narrow field—of which musical ability is a good example. Tulsa admits that the increased size of classes, forced by the depression, prevents anything like the degree of adaptation which ought to be made in the education of superior and gifted children, but contends

that the amount actually being provided for exceeds that which would occur in the typical or traditional situation. If conditions improve, it is hoped to make wider adaptations of the plans, and enrollment for next year of the ninth grade pupils will provide for differentiation in programs for those who have any special abilities and capacities in such broad fields as literature, social studies, and science, as well as opportunity for gifted pupils to supplement the education which the school is providing with instruction in their field of particular talent, without its being done in addition to all the other school work now being required of ninth graders in the junior high school.

The present indications are that next year, as ninth graders, some of those who are now in the eighth grade will complete what is commonly considered to be the subject matter of tenth grade English, mathematics, and science. Some students will do this in all of these fields, others in some of them, but at any rate, some time in the senior high school will have been opened up for each pupil for a broader and more comprehensive general education program built around his particular field of interest or ability supplemented by constants in physical education and health and social studies, as indicated in the attached mimeographed material. This means that next year the present seventh graders will be doing about what the present eighth graders are doing and the present eighth

graders will round out the junior high school phase of this project. The next significant development will be observable during the school year 1936-37, when the present eighth graders pass into the senior high school to begin the second phase of the project.

As is well known, this experiment has a very definite purpose and plan. The plan is being followed closely. In the opinion of your committee, Sections (a), (b), (c), (d), and (e) of the plan are in successful operation. Those parts of the plan having to do with the senior high school are yet to be worked out. While much has been accomplished in the two years since the experiment was initiated, much more remains to be done. Only after one or more of the accelerated groups completes the work of the senior high school, will it be possible to fairly evaluate the experiment. We recommend (1) the continued approval of the plan and all that has been accomplished to date; (2) that the committee, or a new committee appointed for the purpose, be instructed to visit the schools and make a careful study of and a report on the experiment at the annual meeting in 1937.

H. E. CHANDLER

H. G. LULL

J. D. ELLIFF, *Chairman*

#### PLAN FOR THE EIGHT-YEAR PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION EXPERIMENTAL STUDY IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF TULSA, OKLAHOMA

*Purpose:* (a) To provide in twelve years of schooling a better general education for each member of a selected group of college preparatory students than is now customarily provided for in fourteen years.

(b) To discover from our experience with this selected college preparatory group whether in a *maximum* of fourteen years of regular schooling an adequate program of non-college preparatory education cannot be completed. The implication here is that for many students a good general education and a good pre-vocational education can be accomplished in ten or eleven years of schooling thus making

it possible for many young people at seventeen or eighteen years of age to enter productive enterprises at least on part-time.

*Plan:* (a) To select on the basis of tests and school records a group who excel in ability to learn.

(b) To provide opportunity for this group to learn at a rate in proportion to their ability, thus attaining an achievement level above their grade level in the elementary school.

(c) Retain the group in the elementary (children's) school six years or during the twelfth year of age, irrespective of higher achievement level.



(d) At the end of six years, move the group to the junior high (young adolescents') school for a three year period (C.A. of thirteen, fourteen, fifteen) during which the gap between grade level and achievement level will be still further widened as the ability of the students will permit. (Data on present top group in 7B: Range, 8.8 to 10.0 (ceiling); Mean, 9.1)

(e) Provide in the junior high school an enriched and integrated general education core for all with opportunity for each to add to this an experience in both academic and non-academic areas according to his interests and abilities.

(f) For tenth, eleventh, and twelfth school years, (C.A. of sixteen, seventeen, and eighteen) remove to a senior high (older adolescents' school) during which a program of education in proportion to ability is provided. This ought to mean that at least in the field of each student's major ability and interest he will be doing work on a level with what is now done in the thirteenth and fourteenth grades and even beyond this for a few.

(g) Institute a senior high school program which provides for a distribution of time for each student as follows: (approximately)

Major field of interest or ability .....	40%
Minor fields of interest .....	15%
Physical Recreation and Health .....	20%
Social Studies .....	15%
Maintenance of basic skills .....	10%

(1) The major field is to be kept broad, as is a general education program. Specialization is a function of higher education.

(2) The minor fields are to be many and varied—including extracurricular activities. Use the "short course" idea.

(3) The social studies time is to provide the basic minimum civic and social experience calculated to keep one abreast of the times. If a student has a major interest program in this field, omit all or part of this.

(4) The skill period becomes required of any pupil if, as, and when he exhibits in his other school work need for more practice in any of the basic educational skills. It should include basic composition skills, handwriting or typewriting, reading, speech, arithmetic, spelling, etc.

(5) This program presupposes a school day of approximately six hours and forty-five minutes exclusive of the lunch period but inclusive of extra-curricular activities and physical recreation.

(h) At the end of the senior high school period, we shall ask that these students be given opportunity by higher institutions to

take whatever examinations the college gives to determine the achievement levels of its freshman and sophomore students. If our students attain marks on these tests equal to or above the average of the college students, we shall ask for advanced standing for our students. If, at the end of a period of such testing, our students consistently earn advanced standing, we shall ask the colleges to accept our students on the basis of our own personnel records.

(i) When the college-preparatory group project is well under way, follow it up with an experimental program for the non-college preparatory group. (Not elaborated here because not a part of the Progressive Education Association Project.)

*Status:* (1) In the fall of 1933, the project was initiated in Tulsa at the 7B level in four of our junior high schools. About two hundred fifty students were involved. They are now in the eighth grade.

(2) Another two hundred fifty 7B students were started this fall in the same four schools.

(3) Plans for handling the groups in the elementary schools are being formulated by a committee of elementary school teachers and principals. We hope to institute the plan at this level next fall.

(4) Since we began the project at the 7B level, the first students will not have the full twelve year advantage either in acceleration or enrichment of program.

(5) The groups from Tulsa will not be asking entrance to college until the fall of 1939.

(6) We have changed the program which we are offering this group by integration and enrichment of their social studies and English work, by extending and enriching their science program, by carrying forward some of their teachers with them from year to year so that we may better study them as individuals than otherwise would be the case, by acceleration through the typical seventh and eighth grade mathematics and by elaborating upon our usual personnel records for pupils of these grades.

(7) The teachers in charge hold group conferences from time to time, work together during the school year as well as during the summer vacation to lay plans for teaching these groups and to revise the regular courses of study better to suit the abilities of these groups. An increasing number of teachers and principals are becoming keenly interested in the progress of these groups and are becoming more alive to the problem of vitalizing our whole program of secondary education.

✓  
MINUTES OF THE ANNUAL MEETING<sup>1</sup>, 1935 ✓  
SECOND SESSION—THE BANQUET MEETING

*Friday Evening, April 12, 1935*

THE Annual Banquet of the Fortieth meeting of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools was presided over by President R. M. Hughes, Iowa State College.

*Toastmaster Hughes:* Ladies and Gentlemen: I feel somewhat embarrassed in appearing in this honorable post this evening. Some years ago I was very active in the North Central Association, and I treasured my relations here very dearly, but eight years ago when I went to my present post in Iowa I found my duties so burdensome that I had to give this up. So I regard it as a peculiarly gracious thing of this body to elect me Vice President a year ago, and I was pleased to know that you even remembered me after so many years of absence.

I want to present to this body one of our most distinguished guests, a man, whom I think you all know, who is with us tonight for—I am not sure whether it is the fortieth time, but somewhere in that vicinity. Dr. G. N. Carman, President of Lewis Institute, and a charter member of this Association.

*President G. N. Carman:* I happened to be present at the meeting at Northwestern University when this organization started. I recall very vividly those early members: President Angell; President Jesse of the University of Missouri; Chancellor Chapin, Washington University; President Draper of the University of Illinois, and others who are quite prominent in the early history of this Association.

As I have said before, there was no

one who had as much to do with organizing the Association and afterwards the Commission on Accrediting Schools and Colleges as President W. R. Harper. He chanced to be the chairman of the committees in both cases that made the Constitution, and he took a very active part in the early history of this Association.

*Toastmaster Hughes:* We have had the pleasure in recent years of having with us delegates from the other organizations that are similar to the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. It is my pleasure to present these representatives to you this evening.

First is the representative of the New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Professor George S. Miller, of Tufts College, Medford, Massachusetts. Professor Miller.

*Professor George S. Miller:* Mr. Toastmaster, Ladies and Gentlemen: This is my first visit to this Association, and I have been very much pleased to attend your meetings yesterday afternoon and today.

The thing that impresses a New Englander most about an organization such as this is the extensive territory that is represented. We are so small and so compact compared with what you are.

In the country as a whole, we are getting used to traveling. It makes me think of a story that is going the rounds in Boston at the present time, of the teacher who was telling her class about Robinson Crusoe. She explained how he was wrecked and lived on this island all alone, and didn't see any human beings at all. Finally, one morning he went

<sup>1</sup> The first division of the Minutes was published in the July QUARTERLY.—THE EDITOR.

down to the shore and saw human footsteps. The teacher stopped and said, "Who do you suppose it was that reached that lonesome island away off from where anybody had ever been?"

Little Johnny, in the back of the room, put up his hand and said, "Mrs. Roosevelt." [Laughter]

Our association is somewhat different from yours due to the fact that we have the New England College Entrance Certificate Board. We are not an accrediting institution, as you are, but we have individual members who are faculty members and administrators in colleges and secondary schools, and we have institutional members who are elected if they apply, if they meet the qualifications established by the association. However, we do have in common the same basic idea that you do, maintaining and promoting the standards of collegiate and secondary education and, especially at the present time, all interested in education are interested in seeing to it that the depression does not make permanent encroachments upon the traditions that have been established in a period of three centuries.

The Boston Latin school, one of our members, will celebrate in a few days the three hundredth anniversary of its founding, and in those three centuries there have been developed a great many traditions. One of the most important is what we have referred to as keeping schools out of politics.

We are faced now, as a result of the depression, with the possibility of having some of those traditions very materially injured. We find that our school committees are in many cases controlled by politicians rather than educators. Very frequently, superintendents of schools find it difficult to elect the best possible teachers due to the fact of political influence being brought to bear and forcing the schools into politics.

I had an incident happen a few days ago that emphasizes that situation. A man, who happened to be a member of the board of aldermen in his city, told me that he expected to have his daughter elected teacher in the high school of his city next September. I knew she did not have the qualifications that are ordinarily required, so I said to him, "How is it that she can be elected? Don't you have qualifications in that city?"

He said, "The qualifications are six votes, and I have them." [Laughter]

I do not know what your local conditions are, but that is not a mere isolated instance as conditions are developing in New England. It seems to me that as educators one of the things we need to look out for most is to see to it that as a result of the depression we do not have merely a temporary curtailment of budgets, but that we develop a permanent political control. That is the challenge, more than anything else, from the depression to education, as it appears to me from my limited observation.

I have had it emphasized to me by mail and by person that my time is very limited, so I will only say in conclusion that I am very glad to bring to this, your fortieth meeting, the greetings of the New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. We have had the honor of representatives from this Association attending our recent meetings, and we hope that next December, when we hold our fiftieth annual meeting that we shall again have the honor of a representative from this Association being in attendance.

*Toastmaster Hughes:* We are fortunate in having a representative of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Middle States, Professor E. D. Grizzell, of the University of Pennsylvania. Professor Grizzell.

*Professor E. D. Grizzell:* Ladies and



Gentlemen: I am always glad to leave corrupt and contented Philadelphia and come out to Chicago and enjoy the North Central Association.

I have been coming out here for a long time. I don't know how much longer you are going to let me come. I am not a candidate for any kind of office, so I hope you won't stop my annual pilgrimages.

There is one reason I like to come to the North Central Association. There may be several reasons, but there is one in particular, and that is that you are always tackling some problem out here. It is really a stimulation to come and see you folks work.

I am always reminded of the New England lady, the Boston lady living on Beacon Hill, who had a niece visit her from California. She stopped on the way out in Chicago and Niagara Falls. When she got to Boston she told her aunt about the experiences she had had. The old lady listened very attentively, heaved a sigh, and said, "I would like to take that trip some day myself, but I guess I can't do it." The girl wanted to know why. She said, "Well, I am already here." [Laughter]

I never find the North Central Association feeling that it has yet arrived. That, I say, is the great thing that I get out of your meetings.

Your Toastmaster has already reminded me that I have spoken on several other occasions here, and we are to have a very short opportunity to speak. I want to bring to you the greetings of our association. I want to express the appreciation of our group working in the national committee on standards for the untiring interest and efforts that have been set forth by your representatives on that committee.

*Toastmaster Hughes:* I am under the impression that years ago one of the first associations which sent a fraternal delegate to this gathering was the South-

ern Association, and we are particularly pleased to have with us a representative of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Your program indicates that President McVey would be here, but he was unable to come. We are extremely happy to have Dr. J. W. Barton, President of the Ward-Belmont School of Nashville with us. President Barton.

*President J. W. Barton:* Mr. Chairman, I can assure you that President McVey could have brought the greetings of the Southern Association to you in a much better way than I could, but with no greater pleasure than I.

I am always interested in finding optimists about, and I found one here tonight in President Gage when he called a meeting of the college division of the Higher Commission immediately after the meeting this evening. [Laughter]

I see that it is quite the style for us to tell some stories. I was given instructions like these other gentlemen were. Not only was it indicated that I would have only a few minutes of time, but that I must also tell some jokes. They didn't send any jokes along.

In my particular area, we are accustomed to hearing about the New Deal as it sees itself developing in the Tennessee Valley Authority. Many of our people are very much opposed to the policies of this Authority. The story goes that not long since some man was in a group listening to a speech where the speaker was trying to tell the merits of the great President who brought all of this fine thing to our section of the country, and he stressed repeatedly what he had done. There was a rather obstreperous fellow in the house who liked to answer back — sometimes they still answer back out loud in my section of the country, being south of the Smith and Wesson line. [Laughter] This fellow said, "I don't like him." The speaker

went along to say what the President had done in the early days of his career with reference to the bank holiday. The fellow said again, "I don't like him." The speaker tried to get back to the theme of the Tennessee Valley Authority, but this fellow repeated, "I don't like him." Finally the speaker declared, "There must be some unseen power behind the President who can make him do so much." And the heckler called out, "I don't like her, either."

I have been very much interested in visiting your meetings for the last two days and finding that you are wrestling with some problems we are wrestling with in the Southern Association. I have been interested particularly in what you say with reference to your teacher preparation.

As a matter of fact, with the preparation the teachers have had, inadequate as it has been, possibly I am still reminded of the story of the fellows who were running for county attorney down in my home county in the red lands of eastern Texas, where the hills had grown red from a suffering agriculture. One man had had all of the law courses he could possibly think of at the university. He had been one of the pampered children of the county, and when he came back and made all the stump speeches he was making throughout the county he showed all of his wonderful training.

The other had grown up over at Cherokee Bayou. He had just come up. He had read law in Judge Buford's office and had passed the bar examination by the aid of a good friend in the country who had helped grade his paper. He had gotten to where he had some ability as a speaker and some ability as a lawyer. He could not say that he had all of his legal training at the state university, as much as he would like to have had it, nor could he claim that he was of the third generation of Texans, because his

parents had gotten to Texas so early he was rather ashamed to go back and find why they left the state from whence they came. Nevertheless, his only remark with reference to all the training that his opponent had had was that, "It was fine but, after all, it took a horse and not a pig to run a race."

There is a great deal in that, my friends. After all, it takes a person who can teach despite all the training we can give him. We must have a horse that can win a race.

We are doing several things in our association. We are more conservative than you. Professor Grizzell has been down there. Mr. Clevenger, your Secretary, has been down there. President Wriston has been there. All of you remarked with reference to our conservativeness. We still have the same standards we had in 1896 in most respects, except we have a new constitution. By the test vote of three to one, it looks like we might soon have one that may nearly come up to yours.

But we are interested in some of the things you are doing in the survey work. We have gone about from college to college for about three years. Possibly we do not have the scientific approach you have, but I think we have an equally sympathetic approach to the problems of a college where there are known deficiencies but, at the same time, there are some fine excellencies about it. In examining several of those schools (I happened to be on that committee), we found that sometimes the excellencies are even above the deficiencies, and we have put them on the accredited list without any type of warning whatsoever. It may be a bad practice, so far as standards are concerned, but the boys and girls who go through those schools are the recipients of a very fine type of education. So we are doing something in this direction.

Possibly the greatest step forward we have made in the past ten years has been an effort, brought about through the leadership of some of the men of our association aided by General Board funds, toward the improvement of negro schools. The rather striking thing about that is that it has hit the pride of local boards of trustees. Since we have gotten to the place where we can accredit negro schools, Mr. McChristian, the agent for that division of the Southern Association in full charge of the states, has gotten letter after letter saying, "I want to be the first principal (or the first superintendent) to have my negro school accredited in this area. Please come over and help me."

A tremendous amount of work has been done in the past five years, as evidenced in the records of our association, as well as in the turn that has been taken in the local schools for the education of the negro child. But we still have too many inequalities. In towns with 600 negro children and 250 white children, there are ten teachers in the white schools and ten teachers in the colored schools. That matter still has to be pioneered in a great many directions. It is coming along at even a more rapid gait than we thought it could have five years ago.

I think the main thing, Mr. Chairman, about our Association is the fact that we are looking with a great deal of interest at the work of your Association in its new statement of policy. It seems to us that it is an attempt to get back to the individual student. It seems to us it is an attempt to approximate the days of Mark Hopkins on one end of the log and the student on the other.

Speaking of that, I heard one of the research students say not long ago that he had known, of course, that Mark Hopkins had been dead and gone many years and that the student on the other

end of the log had grown up and gone his way, but he often wondered what had become of the log. He got busy to discover what had become of that log and he had found that it had been sawed up into boards—state boards of education, standardizing boards of education, higher commissions of boards of education, even to boards of trustees.

As I understand your plan, you are trying to remake a log, synthetic though it may be, but a log nevertheless that will prove helpful to the cause of education.

So I can bring you greetings from our Association and tell you that we have looked on those representatives you have sent to us in times past with a great deal of pleasure. Dean Haggerty explained your new plan to us and we are watching it very, very carefully.

I think any further remarks of mine might be as inappropriate as an event that happened at one of the banquets of our association some five or six years ago, when the president of the association thought it was necessary for one of the men who believed in military education to have a chance to give justification of the R.O.T.C. which he had in his school. President Britton of Georgia Tech spoke, and did a great turn at it, too. Immediately after, his glee club came in to sing some spirituals, not knowing of anything that had gone on before. The club immediately stated its first number as, "We Ain't Goin' to Study War no More." [Laughter]

Mr. Chairman, I do bring you the greetings of our association, and tell you we are happy to receive your representatives from time to time. We are close enough together to permit us to be in each other's associations more frequently possibly than we have in the past and we can study each others' plans and procedures and come to understand and to know each other better.

*Toastmaster Hughes:* Your programs



do not carry the news that we are fortunate in having a representative of the Northwestern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. It is a great pleasure to present Dean Elwood Smith of the State System of Higher Education of Oregon. Dean Smith.

*Dean Elwood Smith:* Members of the North Central Association: I find that three days on the train with the dust and two days in Chicago with the rain, has made mud out of my voice. [Laughter]

A man who got on the train at Cheyenne and entered the club car wasn't immediately taken to the bosom of the company congregated there. He looked around for a moment and finally addressed the company, "The biggest snake I ever seen—six feet. What do you folks say?" I think as a conversational gambler that would pretty nearly score.

It isn't my thought, in bringing greetings from the Northwest, to engage you in a snake story contest, or anything of the kind, although perhaps that might be productive of results, but I am here to bring the greetings from the Northwest, particularly from the state of Oregon. If I said that in the West, somebody would immediately inquire, "Why not California? Why don't you say something about California?" In the first place, California isn't in the Northwest region, and in the next place I am going to say something about California in just a moment. [Laughter]

C. C. Chapin, editor of the *Oregon Border*, was invited to the state college to address the student convocation. He was invited because he was an excellent speaker and a very astute man and, I suppose, also, with no complete disregard of the fact that he has a good deal of political influence. At all events, he was invited to address the students.

In coming to the platform, he began in this way: "California was settled by

gold diggers." Immediately applause from the Oregon students. I don't know exactly why, but a remark of that kind always gets a response in Oregon.

He went on and said, "Washington was settled out of a Pullman car." More applause. I don't know whether the students knew what he meant, and I don't know that I do exactly. At all events, that was greeted with somewhat dubious but prolonged applause.

Then he went on and said, "Then, Oregon." The students all sat back with their mouths open prepared for something succulent and flattering. He said, "Oregon was settled by people driven out of Missouri by the encroachment of civilization." [Laughter]

Being from Oregon, and particularly the Northwest Association, I have a letter here from Dr. Bollman, chairman of the accrediting committee, sending greetings for the Association.

At the recent meetings of the Association in Spokane, they were discussing some of the problems which you have been discussing here, some particularly concerned with the adjustment of curricula and organization to student needs.

I am reminded of a limerick which I was guilty of some years ago before these ideas were the stock and substance of our meetings. If I recall, the limerick went something like this:

When little Willie's think machine was  
unsupplied with gasoline,  
And Angelina's mental dome was largely  
filled with vacuum,  
We used to think their works were busted,  
But now we know they're maladjusted.

Now, of course, we are concerned with this problem of adjustment. We have this problem of organization of adjustment to the student. We haven't been unmindful in our discussions of the fact that back of the organization, or more important than the organization, is the teacher and the scholar; and scholarship can transmit

fire to other scholars, can become infectious.

As I look back over my own experience as an undergraduate, there were two things I valued most about that undergraduate work: First, that I was exposed to things I could become enthusiastic about; and, next, I was let alone. In those old days, we let people alone unscientifically. It was wasteful of the student but it wasn't so wasteful of money.

Now we are trying to let students alone scientifically. That is why I like that term of Dean Brumbaugh, "counselling" rather than guidance, because it suggests that thing; that we are letting the student alone scientifically.

As I said, we have been considering this matter of counselling, of adjustment of the student, of adjustment of the curriculum to the student. Then there is the matter of the teacher, and the scholar who can set fire to other scholars.

The greatest definition of a teacher—and if I didn't say anything tonight except just this I would be satisfied to have had the opportunity of calling this definition to your attention—is in the *Divine Comedy* by Dante. You will recall perhaps that Dante, in making his devious way through the seventh circle of the Inferno, is surprised and grieved to come upon the person of his old teacher, Brunetto Latini. There are students today in our institutions who would come upon some of their teachers similarly located without much surprise and with even still less grief, but, after all, Dante was not one of those students, and Brunetto Latini wasn't a pedagogue to Dante. He was a master, a different sort of teacher. He was a different sort of master than the kind that might be thought of by the students. At all events, this was Dante's comment, you will recall, upon that meeting with his old master:

For in my mind  
Is fix'd, and now strikes full upon my heart,  
The dear, benign, paternal image, such  
As thine was, when so lately thou didst  
teach me  
The way for man to win eternity.

That, to me, is the greatest definition of a teacher of which I know—you, who hour by hour taught me how man makes himself eternal.

In conclusion, one more limerick, and if anybody is here from the city of Toledo, Ohio, please understand I am not alluding to him. I find limericks a means of escape from sub-intellectual golf.

With a youngster, we drove along the coast, before the Fourth of July, through the little lumbering town of Toledo, Oregon, and to pass the time as we drove we concocted this masterpiece:

There was a young man from Toledo  
Who stepped on a giant torpedo—  
As he rose through the air, he sang out,  
"I don't care,  
I have had all the fun that I need-o."

I have scrupulously censored my remarks, so I don't think I have stepped on any torpedoes, but I can assure you I have had all the fun that I need-o.

*Toastmaster Hughes:* On behalf of the Association, I want to thank you gentlemen from the East, from the West, and from the South for coming here and giving us your counsel in these meetings, and for bringing the fellowship and confidence and love of these other associations to this Association, which has been working for many years in the common cause.

I may be out of place, but I would like to call to the attention of our fraternal delegates who go East and West the fact that these gentlemen made very good speeches very briefly. [Laughter].

In presenting the next speaker I have particular pleasure, because I have known him quite well ever since he began his duties, a good many years ago,

as examiner for Ohio State University. I knew what he was doing there for a good many years, and copied a good many things he was doing to the advantage of my own institution, and I encouraged him to bring some of the integrity and courage and wisdom, which he was using in Ohio, to this Association. I take some pride in having had a small part in bringing him into his present active position.

I have great pleasure in presenting the President of this Association, who will speak to us on "Closer Relations," Mr. B. L. Stradley, of Ohio State University. Mr. Stradley. [President Stradley read his prepared paper, "Closer Relations."<sup>1</sup>]

*Toastmaster Hughes:* In presenting the last speaker of the evening, it is a great pleasure to me as an employee of a state-supported institution to present a governor who knows higher education from the inside. I have been going to governors and to legislatures now for about twenty-five years asking them for money, and I have been greatly impressed with their general sympathy with education on all levels, and the change in this period has been very striking.

We find (and I believe it is probably true of all states) there are some people who are quite reluctant to see appropri-

ations for education, whether it be local, state, or national, increased; but by far the majority of men and women in authority in our nation today are favorable to education, and I think that is one thing we can all be very happy about.

On the other hand, there are not so many governors, at any rate in this area of the country, who are understanding of higher education from the inside. So I say it is a peculiar pleasure to present a man who has been dean of a law school in one of our great universities, as well as governor of a great state.

Before I present the speaker, I would like to have the privilege of presenting Mrs. McNutt to this audience. [Applause]

Governor McNutt! [Applause]

*Honorable Paul McNutt:* Mr. Toastmaster, Mr. President, Members and Guests of the North Central Association: I am delighted to meet this company face to face. I have been delighted to believe that I would find you accoutered in horns and tail and cloven hoof. Imagine my pleasant surprise when I found it was otherwise! I noticed, first of all, your very generous and cordial reception of the visiting folk.

I have come to talk to you briefly on the topic, "The Duty of the State."<sup>2</sup> [This address followed.]

### THIRD SESSION—SATURDAY MORNING

The meeting convened at nine-five o'clock, President Stradley presiding.

*President Stradley:* The third general session of our annual meeting will be in order.

The first part of the program will be in charge of President H. M. Gage, Chairman of the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education, who will preside in his usual good manner. [President H. M. Gage took the chair.]

*Chairman Gage:* After the work of the Commission has been done and the work of the Executive Committee, in so far as it pertains to the Commission, has been done, it is our custom, as you know, for the Commission to render its final report to the Association in order that all of our actions and deliberations may be formally incorporated in the proceedings.

As a first step in this process, and the

<sup>1</sup> This paper appeared in the July issue of the *QUARTERLY*.—THE EDITOR.

<sup>2</sup> This address appears elsewhere in this issue of the *QUARTERLY*.—THE EDITOR.



principal, sometimes the only, one, you will have this morning the report of the Secretary of the Commission, Dean Works. [Dean George A. Works read the report of the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education to the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.<sup>1</sup>]

*Chairman Gage:* The North Central Association, from the beginning, has had representation on the American Council of Education. The report of our representative will be given this year by Dr. Wriston, President of Lawrence College.

*President Henry M. Wriston* (Lawrence College, Appleton, Wis.): Mr. Chairman, it is unfortunate in many ways that the person who has made this report for a great many years cannot do it today. Dr. Judd has represented this Association for many years, and has been extraordinarily active in the work of the American Council. A second of your representatives on the Council, President Elliott, is a member of the Executive Committee, as Dr. Judd is a member of the Problems and Plans Committee.

*Chairman Gage:* Mr. President I have now to present to you a matter which has not formally been considered by the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education. I refer to the plans for the operation of the FERA in colleges and universities next year.

Last evening we had an informal conference, as most of you know, on the FERA. At that conference there was an informal record made of sentiment in regard to various issues. The conference also recorded itself in favor of formally presenting certain matters to the Association. A committee to draw up and to state the sentiment of that conference last evening was appointed. The chair-

man of the committee is President Greene of Parsons College. Other members are: Father Knapp of St. Louis University, and Dr. Kay, dean of the Liberal Arts College of the University of Iowa.

If it meets your pleasure, I suggest that you hear now the report of that committee, by President Greene of Parsons College.

*President Stradley:* We shall be glad to hear President Greene at this time.

*President Clarence W. Greene* (Parsons College, Fairfield, Iowa): Mr. Chairman, your committee is simply reporting the action of the conference of last evening, the conference of colleges. I shall read the report.

The following resolutions relating to federal aid under the FERA for college students are recommended to the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools for favorable action:

1. The members of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools hereby express to the federal administration deep appreciation for the great good done through assistance given under the FERA to many worthy and financially needy college students; this Association also expresses the hope that the federal administration will continue to give similar aid to college students for the college year 1935-36.

2. This Association urges that favorable consideration be given by the federal administration to increasing the average amount a college student may earn under the FERA, provided that such can be done without decreasing the total number of students to be given aid.

3. Because of the extreme conditions of economic distress that have prevailed in the drought areas of the U.S., this Association strongly recommends that special consideration be given by the federal administration to increasing the assistance to be given to college students in such areas.

This committee further recommends that copies of the above resolutions be transmitted by the secretary of this Association to Dr. Harry Hopkins, federal

<sup>1</sup> This report (which was formally "received" by vote of the Association) appeared in the July issue of the QUARTERLY.—THE EDITOR.

relief administrator, and to U. S. Commissioner of Education, Dr. John W. Studebaker. Respectfully submitted by Geo. F. Kay, Thomas M. Knapp, S.J., and Clarence W. Greene, chairman.

*Chairman Gage:* Mr. Chairman, in order to facilitate our business, I move that the report of this committee as presented by Mr. Greene be received and its recommendations adopted. [President Stradley took the chair.]

*President Stradley:* The motion is before you. Is there a second? [The motion was regularly seconded.]

*President Stradley:* Do you wish to discuss it? If not, all in favor of the motion say "Aye," all opposed, "No." Carried. I have a few notices I shall report at this time. [President Stradley made some announcements.]

*President Stradley:* In most of the big corporations, somewhere out in front is a general manager vested with large authority and broad powers who runs the business. In the new social order, Government finds it necessary to have a manager. If it is a foreign country, such as Italy or Germany, we like to call this governmental officer a dictator. In the United States we would prefer to call him a President, but in a large city he is a City Manager. It may be necessary to have a mayor as a sort of animated flag to hand out the keys of the city and kiss the babies, but the time has arrived when we must have a manager who says, "Yes," or "No," and makes it stick.

The modern city manager is a trained city administrator. In Cincinnati, the government of the city operates efficiently, with lower taxes and reduced cost of government.

The speaker this morning has taught government in some of our large universities. From the standpoint of training and experience he is well qualified to speak on the subject, "Whither Education?"

One of my Ohio friends this winter addressed a literary club in Columbus, and took as his subject, "The Liberal Arts College, Whence, Where and Whither." In the Chicago papers this week, I noticed two topics: One, "Whither Rotary?" and the other, "Whither Business?"

This morning, "Whither Education?" by Clarence A. Dykstra, City Manager of the city of Cincinnati.

*Honorable Clarence A. Dykstra:* Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen: I appreciate the generosity of the Chairman, but he does make a rather extravagant statement. I hope it will never get back to Cincinnati that the City Manager of Cincinnati may be compared in some sense to a dictator. It is just exactly what he is not. He is there by the suffrage of a group of representatives chosen by the people. He may be toppled from that particular rostrum within ten minutes at any time, and hence he does not have the characteristics of a dictator. He doesn't have an army and he doesn't have control of the ballot box. I assure you that makes a good deal of difference.

It was with a good deal of trepidation that I accepted this invitation, for I have been out in the cold world for some time and haven't had the real opportunity to keep track of what is going on in the field of education. Perhaps I cannot appraise it. Certainly, I cannot condemn it, and I have much of praise to say for it.

It is as a sort of outsider, one who has been kicked out, if you will, of the pedagogical field, that I come to you with a few impressions that may have been crystallized in the last few years.

So as not to be misunderstood and not to run over the time which I think was set at twenty minutes, I have set down on paper what I have to say. [Mr. Dykstra read his prepared paper, "Whither Education?"<sup>1</sup>]

*President Stradlèy:* My friends, this is a timely message for those of us who are charged with the training and the development of the greatest of our resources, the genius of the American youth. Mr. Dykstra, we appreciate the fact that you have come here this morning to share with us your thoughts on education. On behalf of the Association, I thank you for this stimulating, inspiring and helpful address.

Is there any other business to come before this session?

*President H. M. Gage* (Coe College, Cedar Rapids, Iowa): I have a statement and a motion I would like to make, Mr. President.

I want to talk about your address for a moment. I think you are sufficiently modest to be allowed to hear what I have to say. You may remember, since it wasn't very long ago that you gave the presidential address at the dinner session of this Association, that when you had done speaking one of my friends voiced my own opinion and, I think, the opinion of all who were present in these words: "The man has been talking common sense in a pointed way."

I have in mind especially this morning that common sense is so rare, and common sense presented in a pointed fashion is so much more rare that we should not allow that address to issue merely in talk which immediately thereafter is to be buried in the printed proceedings of this Association.

What you said, Mr. President, in regard to recruiting and its effect, and the

fundamental purpose of this Association, closer and better relations between secondary schools and colleges; what you said in regard to the testing program and inspection of high schools, and your reference to the fact that three years ago Dr. Walter A. Jessup, from this rostrum in this room, made pointed criticisms of our program and policy and that those criticisms to this day remain unanswered: all of these things have actuated me to make this statement and this motion.

That the President's address be referred to the Executive Committee for consideration and, so far as may be practicable, the incorporation of its suggestions into the working program of this Association in the immediate future.

*President Stradlèy:* I believe it would be more fitting and appropriate for the Secretary to put the motion.

*Secretary Clevenger:* Ladies and gentlemen, you have just heard the motion which President Gage has made. Is there a second? [The motion was regularly seconded.]

*Secretary Clevenger:* Is there any discussion? Those in favor of the motion say "Aye;" contrary, "No." The motion is carried.

As Secretary of this Association, I shall see that this matter is brought to the attention of the Executive Committee at the meeting this afternoon.

Mr. President, your period of abdication is now over.

*President Stradlèy:* Please come this afternoon and hear Dr. Smith, President of the N.E.A. The meeting is now adjourned. [The meeting recessed at ten-thirty o'clock.]

<sup>1</sup> This paper appears elsewhere in this issue of the QUARTERLY.—THE EDITOR.



## FOURTH SESSION—SATURDAY AFTERNOON

The meeting convened at one-thirty o'clock, President Stradley presiding.

*President Stradley:* The fourth general session of our Association will be in order.

The program is provided by the Commission on Secondary Schools. F. L. Hunt, Chairman of the Secondary Schools Commission, of the Culver Military Academy, will act as chairman. [Mr. F. L. Hunt took the chair.]

*Chairman Hunt:* Mr. President and Members of the North Central: As a good many of you know, the Commission on Secondary Schools had three very busy sessions as usual, which supplemented two days that the twenty state chairmen spent in reviewing the reports of more than 2600 schools. A summary of the work of those reviewing committees, and of the actions of the Commission in its various sessions, will be presented by Secretary H. G. Hotz, of Arkansas. [Mr. H. G. Hotz read his prepared report<sup>1</sup> down to the words "III. Special Reports," and then departed from the manuscript to make the following remarks.]

There is a rather voluminous report here from the Committee on Standards which I am not going to read unless I am requested to do so. There are several changes in the regulations and standards, and I shall simply read the changes. If you request that I read the original draft, I shall be glad to do so, but I shall simply list the changes in order to conserve time.

Policy 2 now reads as follows, or is to read as follows: "Any school warned shall be dropped the following year if the school persists in violating the same standard," and this is added: "Provided, however, that this policy may be waived upon the recommendation of the state

committee by a three-fourths vote of the members of the Commission present." There is no other change in policies.

Our definition for regulations has been changed a little. It now is to read: "Regulations are conditions which any school must meet in order that its annual application for accrediting may be unqualifiedly approved."

Then Regulation 1 has a slight change: "No school can be considered," and we are adding there "for unqualified approval unless the regular annual report," and so forth. That is to make it consistent with the definition just mentioned.

It is suggested that Regulation 5 be discontinued.

The definition for standards is slightly revised. It now is to read as follows: "Standards are criteria for evaluating the work of a school, the violation of which shall result in a warning or advice to the school."

There are no changes in Standards 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5. Standard 6 has a new title. The old title, as you remember, was "Salaries." It now has this title: "Standard 6. Selection and tenure of teachers. The policy of the Board of Education shall be such as to attract and retain the services of well qualified and competent teachers. The interpretation of this requirement shall be a matter of special responsibility for the state committees."

Standard 7 has been reorganized somewhat. We are consolidating with Standard 7, Standard 11 which is "Preparation of Superintendent or Principal." There is no change otherwise in this standard, with the exception of this statement at the close of this standard: "Standard 7 (a), (b) and (e) shall not be construed as retroactive within the Association." That will not change the present force of that standard. This sen-

<sup>1</sup> This report appeared in the July issue of the QUARTERLY.—THE EDITOR.



tence will, to some extent, change the effect of the standard: "In individual cases a reasonable deviation from Standard 7 recommended by the state committee may be accepted by the Association." Heretofore that has applied only to Standard 11. Now it will apply to all of Standard 7 which now includes Standard 11 as 7 (e).

No change in Standard 8. No change in Standard 9, excepting a slight rephrasing of the last sentence, which does not change the force of the standard at all but simply clarifies the language. It is to read: "A different practice in any school approved by the state committee may be accepted by the Association."

Those constitute all the changes in the standards.

The recommendations, which are simply guiding principles in the interest of improving secondary education, have a few changes.

Recommendation 3 is to be abridged considerably, and it will simply contain these two sentences now: "The Association recommends that each approved secondary school should feel responsible for furnishing training and service for a limited number of beginning teachers. In determining the number of beginning teachers that a school should employ, careful account should be taken of the adequacy and efficiency of the supervisory staff." It is about one-third what it previously was.

Recommendation 5 is changed to read as follows, and relates to the curriculum or course of study: "Whenever it serves the best interests of the pupils enrolled, the school shall be encouraged to introduce or develop more fully in their program of studies such courses as agriculture, home economics, industrial art, commerce, and the fine arts. The Association believes that in relation to these courses it is incumbent upon the member schools to provide a sufficient

number of teachers relatively as well qualified for their work as are the teachers of academic subjects."

A new Recommendation 8 is added: "Teachers should be employed by the Board of Education upon the recommendation of the administrative head of the school system."

Mr. President, I move the adoption of the changes in these policies, regulations, standards and recommendations. [The motion was regularly seconded. President Stradley resumed the chair.]

*President Stradley:* You have heard the motion. It was seconded. Is there any discussion? If not, those in favor will say "Aye," those opposed, "No." Carried. [Mr. H. G. Hotz continued, reading the rest of the report.]

*Mr. F. L. Hunt:* I move the adoption of the report, Mr. President.

*President Stradley:* You have heard the motion. Is there a second? [The motion was seconded and passed. Mr. F. L. Hunt took the chair.]

*Chairman Hunt:* The next item on the program I presume might very well be headed an experiment in the nature of the thing which the North Central by its declared principles wish to promote. The genesis of this particular topic is a double one.

Several years ago Mr. Milo H. Stuart of Indianapolis, as President of the North Central Association, in his presidential address made the suggestion that we might well consider the establishment of a sort of honor list of teachers and administrators who were doing outstanding things in the Association.

A year ago last February, at the meeting of the Department of Secondary Principals in Cleveland, Dr. Judd, in discussing the ideal standards for a secondary school, said, among other things, that he thought the Association spent possibly too much time in discussing violations of standards and not enough time



in discussing best practices in the schools.

With the idea of carrying out something of those two suggestions, I sent a letter last fall to each of the state chairmen of the twenty states in the North Central territory asking him to look over his field and give me a brief report, or have someone give it for him, concerning the practice which he would pick out as the outstanding one in his particular state. This may have been an embarrassing question, evidently, to some of them because they said they had a hard time to decide among the number of good practices which they had encountered.

However, they came in, and I sorted them myself as well as possible into certain categories, and in order to bring into the picture two men from the classroom, we have asked two such representatives to present to us these digests of these best practices in certain North Central schools. I am glad to present first Mr. F. A. Kahler, of the New Trier Township High School, Winnetka, Illinois. Mr. Kahler.

*Mr. F. A. Kahler:* Mr. Chairman and Members of the Association: I feel I should ask the indulgence, before I start in on these reports, of those who were good enough to submit them. Because of the limitations imposed on me of a time nature, I have been compelled to mutilate, mangle, and even dismember some of these reports pretty badly. However, I shall be very careful, indeed, to read the state, the name of the state chairman of the school in which the practice is used, and of the teacher or teachers under whom it is administered, to preclude any possibility of mis-identification. The reporters may not recognize their reports otherwise.

Mr. Hunt was good enough to select for my summary those reports that had to do with the field of guidance in gen-

eral, and of those he gave me, some eight in number, six fall directly in that category. Two of them, however, are only remotely concerned with guidance, and I shall give you those two first. The order in which they are given you, of course, has no particular significance. [Mr. Kahler gave a summary of "Some 'Best Practices' in Schools Accredited by the North Central Association."<sup>1</sup>]

*Chairman Hunt:* The second section will be presented by Mr. H. V. Melone, of the John Burroughs School, Clayton, Missouri. [Mr. Melone read his report on "Some 'Best Practices' in Schools Accredited by the North Central Association."<sup>2</sup> President Stradley resumed the chair.]

*President Stradley:* May I at this time call for the report of the Auditing Committee. Reverend J. J. Edwards, of the De Paul University High School, will make this report. [The report was read.]

*Reverend J. J. Edwards:* Mr. Chairman, I move the adoption of the report.

*President Stradley:* You have heard the motion. Is there a second? [The motion was seconded and passed.]

I will call at this time for the report of the Committee on Time and Place of the 1936 Annual Meeting. Mr. Clevenger, Secretary of the Association. [Secretary Clevenger read the report of the Committee on Time and Place of the 1936 Annual Meeting fixing the time for April 22, 23, 24 and 25, and the place as the Stevens Hotel, Chicago.]

*Secretary Clevenger:* I move that this report of the Executive Committee be accepted.

*President Stradley:* You have heard the motion. Is there a second? [The motion was seconded and passed.]

I will call next for the report of the

<sup>1</sup> This paper will appear in a later issue of the QUARTERLY.—THE EDITOR.

<sup>2</sup> This paper will appear in a later issue of the QUARTERLY.—THE EDITOR.



Executive Committee, A. W. Clevenger, Secretary. [Secretary Clevenger read the report of the Executive Committee as follows.<sup>1</sup>]

*President Stradley:* Rather than introduce the next speaker as coming from the favorite state, I shall say that he comes from the banks of the Wabash. He is well known to all of us. He has manifested an interest in this Association for a long time. He holds the position of Dean of the School of Education of the University of Indiana, and at the present time is President of the National Education Association. This Association was organized in 1857 and has a membership of 200,000. Headquarters is located in Washington, D.C., with a staff of 140 members. The whole strength of this association is thrown back of the advancement of education throughout our land.

I take great pleasure in presenting our good friend, President Smith of the National Education Association, who will address us on the subject, "Trends in Secondary Education." [Dean Smith read his prepared paper.<sup>2</sup>]

*President Stradley:* On behalf of the Association, Dean Smith, I thank you.

We have one more item of business which will be presented by the Secretary.

*Secretary Clevenger:* "Prior to each

<sup>1</sup> All items in this report requiring the formal approval of the Association were, on motions, duly accepted.—THE EDITOR.

<sup>2</sup> This address appeared in the July issue of the QUARTERLY.—THE EDITOR.

annual meeting of the Association, the President shall appoint a committee of five whose duty it shall be to nominate suitable persons for election to each office not otherwise provided by the Association. The announcement of these nominations shall be made at the first session of the Association, but election shall take place at a later session. Independent nominations may be made upon petition by any ten members."

No petitions have been filed with the Secretary. In order to refresh your minds, I shall read again the report of the Nominating Committee so that we will have these officers in mind. [Secretary Clevenger re-read the report of the Nominating Committee.]

*Secretary Clevenger:* Mr. President, I move the adoption of this report of the Nominating Committee.

*President Stradley:* You have heard this motion. Is there a second? [The motion was seconded and passed.<sup>3</sup>]

*President Stradley:* Before I adjourn this Fortieth Meeting of our Association, may I say that I deeply appreciate the honor you have conferred upon me. If I may claim any success in the duties in administering the office of President, it was due largely to the unselfish services of the Commissions, the committees, and the officers of this Association.

We stand adjourned. [The meeting adjourned at three-thirty o'clock.]

<sup>3</sup> The list of nominees as elected appeared in the July issue of the QUARTERLY.—THE EDITOR.